ORGANISATIONAL PATTERN for VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

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PREFACE

This is a companion volume to "Village Planning" published early this year. This publication is divided into two parts. In the first part, Shri Jhaverbhai Patel, Member of the Khadi and Village Industries Board, sets out the objectives, the programme and the techniques of village industries and points out that the real issue involved is the raising of the vitality of the village. This he points out, is linked with the economic structure we seek to build. This structure will be of the decentralised co-operative pattern.

The institutional requirements of the programme and the organisational pattern are lucidly expounded. The immediate objective is to raise the present living standards of the people and to determine a minimum standard programme to ensure to them a minimum standard of living. This standard should be common to every section in the community. The resourceless and the disadvantaged will be afforded opportunities and assistance to attain this standard which is the essence of Antyodaya.

How a programme of this nature which seeks to establish equality in the sense that the last man gets the same opportunities and facilities of development as his better placed brethren is vividly brought out in two chapters. As an illustration, the working of the social security programme in Kamelpur Village has been included. It will be seen that with proper approach and perspective and the participation of the local community, the objective of Antyodaya and a minimum standard are well within the reach of the village community.

On the whole, Part I of this publication is a thesis which explains the objective of village planning and presents the programme, its techniques and the methodology of execution.

Part II is an outline plan for the Murud Region. The Plan has been worked out by Shri Vithal Rao Patwardhan of the Intensive Area Scheme of the Khadi and Village Industries Commission. The outline plan for Murud Region is in line with other village plans published already. The importance of this plan, however, is that it draws into its canvass not one village, but a whole region consisting of 20,000 people. The plan introduces the reader to the Regional characteristics and the problems that have to be faced in the planned development of the region. It gives an idea of the available resources and the prospective lines of development and work that is being carried out at present.

There are two other small chapters which deal with that aspect of village development which is intimately related to the life of the people in the villages. 'Village Remodelling' by Shri Ramjash draws attention to the absence of cleanliness and environmental hygiene which are so essential for healthy living and makes certain constructive suggestions which are worthy of consideration. Shrimati Kusum Patwardhan deals with the problem of village women and how best these problems could be tackled and the women brought to play a more active role in the re-ordering of village life and economy.

This publication, it is hoped will stimulate interest and public discussion, especially in view of the new orientation that is being discussed in relation to community devlopment programmes in the country.

– C. K. Narayanswami
Director of Publicity

PART I

By

Shri Jhaverbhai Patel

CHAPTER I

THE PROGRAMME AND ITS TECHNIQUES

Certain points which Gandhiji made out in 1945 while giving a new orientation to the Khadi programme can well form the basis of the programme of developing khadi and village industries through the intensive area scheme. His suggestions can be summed up as follows :

(1) Khadi should be looked upon as a symbol and a medium of building up the rural economy;

(2) the central question is to convince the people about the potency of the khadi programme;

(3) khadi programme must take root;

(4) the method of implementation of the khadi programme should be under constant review;

(5) khadi must build up a non-violent social order;

(6) the khadi programme must have its impact on politics.

These suggestions can be divided into two broad categories:

(a) suggestions (1 to 5) to create levers of strength; and

(b) suggestion (6) to create levers of power.

Techniques have, therefore, to be evolved to work up the two types of levers among the people. In the Intensive Area Scheme, levers of strength are being evolved and applied as under:

Suggestions (1), (2) and (3) above are sought to be implemented through the following 6 techniques:

(1) formation of the people's agencies in the form of Gram Vikas Mandals and Kshetra Samitis;

(2) thinking together by the village people for group action;

(3) total resources picture;

(4) mobilisation of idle resources;

(5) integrated approach of building up the rural economy;

(6) Gram Sankalpa on the basis of rapid planning for a social objective of Antyodaya and minimum standard of living.

Suggestions (4) and (5) are sought to be implemented through the institutional approach in place of the individualistic approach for the programme under which trade and power industries are to be socialised so as to secure self-employment of workers. There is also to be regional planning to establish a decentralised co-operative economy in place of the centralised competitive economy through common co-operative ownership which eliminates conflicts of interests.

Suggestion (6) pertains to the second type of levers (of power) which has to be worked up through the programme of Gram-raj.

The technique of planning based on social objectives builds up the levers of strength which prepares the people to adopt the levers of power. That consciousness enables them to influence politics. If this influence becomes strong enough, it has its impact on State policies. It can reorient the perspective of the central planning authority of raising the total and the average income of the country into one of Antyodaya. Although planning is said to be economic, it is essentially political and that is why, to put an end to the subordination of the agricultural economy, villages must develop their power to influence politics and State policies through Gram-raj. This is what Gandhiji's suggestions mean.

Two-Fold Programme

In concrete terms, the programme can be executed under two heads :

(1) Gram-Sankalpa; and
(2) Regional Planning.

The central approach of the Intensive Area Scheme can be likened to that of the Nature Cure System which makes everybody his own doctor, increases his willpower and vitality and tones up his system with the minimum of cost. In the same way, the Intensive Area Scheme aims at building up local initiative and strength for implementing the programme. Every area can select all or any of the following items for implementation according to its circumstances and capacity.

I. Gram Sankalpa:

1. Formation of Gram Vikas Mandal;
2. Activisation of Gram Panchayat;
3. Co-operative society;
4. basic school;
5. Community production centre;
6. Shanti Dal;
7. Full and Self-employment;
8. Minimum standard of living;
9. Provision of education and health services;
10. Sharing of social expenditures;
11. Kitchen garden;
12. Community land;
13. Building programme;
14. Provision of cleanliness through bath-rooms and latrines;
15. Free justice; and
16. Collective payment of land revenue.

II. Regional Planning Through Institutions:

1. Kshetra Vikas Samiti;
2. Education Committee;
3. Health Committee to organise maternity homes and Nature Cure Centres;

4. Co-operative Marketing Committee;
5. Co-operative Industries Committee;
6. Co-operative workshop;
7. Co-operative housing society;
8. Cow Development (Gosamvardhan) Committee;
9. Mahila Mandal;
10. Shanti Sena;
11. Cultural Programmes Committee;
12. Insurance Society, to cover life and cattle and crop failures; and
13. Co-operative Bank.

CHAPTER II

ORGANISATIONAL PATTERN FOR VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

1

Raising Vitality – the real issue: The question of the organisational pattern for village industries has usually assumed central importance in the consideration and formulation of plans for village industries. Two difficulties are presumed.

Firstly: Can the village industries sector, unorganised as it is today, be depended upon to supply consumer goods in terms of definite allotments; and,

Secondly: Will village industries products find a ready market looking to their price and quality?

Both these questions raise issues which require to be carefully analysed.

Organisation of supply generally implies centralised supply. The question to be considered, however, is whether it is necessary at all to think in terms of organised or centralised supplies so far as the products of village industries are concerned. Basically, village industries are meant to cater mostly to local needs and it is to a very small extent that products of village industries are expected to meet the requirements of special agencies in a centralised way. The question of supply of village industries products, therefore, should be viewed in relation to the total demand of the community rather than in relation to centralised demand

of certain sections of the population. As production of village industries is decentralised, it is appropriate to consider supply also in terms of decentralisation. Granting, however, that village industries will meet local needs, what is the guarantee that production of the desired level will take place and that there will no overall shortages? This is exactly the point of doubt that arises in regard to the organisation of supplies.

The issue, however, is not a simple one of organising production units and providing training and equipment. Production of village industries suffers not so much for want of such arrangement centrally conceived as it suffers for want of demand. In fact, this production has continually fallen in our country with the decline in its demand. The real problem, therefore, is not that of organisation, but of demand. Production will follow an effective demand. For most of the goods in common demand, the production apparatus exists in the countryside and it is languishing for want of demand. An effective and growing demand will push up this apparatus into full operation and will create a new apparatus where necessary. If, therefore, the difficulty of finding market is solved, the question of organisation of village industries becomes simplified. Now, should the marketing of village industries products present the same problem under planned economy as it does under competitive economy? Planned approach aims at the fulfilment of social objectives with the aid of social regulation and control. Is it expected that village industries should struggle on without having the benefit of such regulation and control? Presumably not. It is recognised that village industries should form part of the planned economy and as such receive the aid of regulation and control, but such aid is regarded as justified only if it raises their vitality. What is objected to is the aid which perpetuates itself. In the final analysis, therefore, the question boils down to that of raising the vitality of village industries.

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The issue linked up with the structure of economy : How is this vitality to be raised and what does it actually mean? In concrete terms, this vitality must be reflected in lowering the cost price and improving the quality of village industries products. This depends on two factors : technological improvement and financial resources. How will the artisans engaged in village industries get the two advantages? In other words, can village industries develop their vitality under an acquisitive or a centralised economy, under both of which the above two advantages are appropriated by the resourceful few? The issue of village industries is thus closely linked up with the structure of the economy. For village industries to develop vitality, the centralised acquisitive economy has to be replaced by the decentralised co-operative economy.

3

Two factors affecting vitality: While the role of technological improvement for raising the vitality of village industries is adequately recognised, the role of financial resources for the same purpose is not properly appreciated. The comparative roles of technological improvement and financial resources can be illustrated by taking the case of the oil pressing industry. The price spread of oilseeds between the farm and the factory and a similar price spread between the factory and the consumer indicate the extent to which the retention of raw-materials in villages can give the price advantage to the village oil industry. This compares well with the price advantage enjoyed by the oil mills due to greater technical efficiency. From the data available in the Marketing Reports on Oilseeds and elsewhere, it would

appear that the oilmills save roughly 15 to 20 per cent as compared to the bullock ghanis on account of greater extraction of oil and less crushing cost. As against this saving, the mills have to spend about 7 to 30 per cent more than the ghanis operating in the villages by way of collection costs of seed from the farmer to the mill and the distribution costs of oil and oilcake back from the mills to consumers in the villages, depending on the value of the oilseeds and the distance covered.

This gives an idea as to how the technological efficiency of the oil mill is considerably offset by the cost of collection of raw materials and distribution of finished products, or, how, in other words, the comparative technological inefficiency of the village ghani is made good to an appreciable extent by savings in costs of collection and distribution. This emphasises the role of financial resources as compared to that of technological improvement. If villages can have the requisite finance to retain and stock all the raw materials required for local processing, the vitality of village industries will be tremendously raised. But what is the picture and the prospect for villages in regard to finance ?

4

Financial Prospects : It is common knowledge that for want of financial resources the villages are denuded practically of all the raw materials during the harvesting season itself. That is why, for instance, the bullock oil-presses are found working in a concentrated form in towns and cities where the mill oil is cheaper than in villages where it is dearer. Finding finances for stocking raw materials is thus the greatest problem of village industries. In this connection, it is interesting to know what the President of the 30th Annual Session of the Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry has to observe :

"It is, of course, a good thing if the State Bank attracts the savings in the rural areas and finances, out of the deposits received, the agricultural operations. What must be avoided, however, is the flow of funds from the urban to rural areas at the expense of the former".

If this is any indication of the current trend, the prospects for rural areas commanding the requisite finance for village industries are anything but bright. Neither do the various projects under the Second Five Year Plan make these prospects brighter. The warehousing project is intended to provide short-term finance to agriculturists more with a view to giving them better prices than to enabling them to retain raw materials for local industries. Even so, the coverage proposed during the plan period is meagre. The direct provision of bulk finance for meeting the needs of village industries in respect of raw materials is only nominal and works out to be a fraction of the total requirements. The plan suggests drawing upon financial agencies for funds for this purpose. In the first place, these agencies have very little to spare on this account, and in the second place, their approach to this programme is conservative. Even the co-operative departments of Governments rely on credit-worthiness for advancing finance and are not able to act upto the recommendation of the Rural Credit Survey Report of the Reserve Bank of India to look to purposes rather than to credit-worthiness. The problem of reaching out to the resourceless, therefore, remains unsolved. That means, the problem of pumping vitality into village industries remains unsolved. What is worse, vitality is pumped out of this sector, unfortunately, more as a result of planning which, through taxes and small savings, collects finances in a central pool without evolving adequate techniques of distributing these resources back to the resourceless. The facts of this background have to be faced if the problem of raising the vitality of village industries is to be earnestly solved.

5

Technological Prospects : What then are the prospects of raising the vitality of village industries through technological improvement ? The Second Plan envisages the supply of electricity to about 15,000 villages. Out of the total production, this will consume 7½ per cent. electricity for irrigation and other purposes as against 72 per cent supplied to large-scale industries. If this will raise the vitality of village industries by a portion of 7½ per cent used for village industries, the vitality of large-scale industries will be raised by 72 per cent. Even the coverage of 15,000 villages is not as a result of any direct programme of rural electrification, but is only a bye-product of the big power projects. This, therefore, does not represent the rate of progress of rural electrification, as there is no knowing how the villages not connected with power projects are proposed to be covered. This provides another background to the prospects of raising the vitality of village industries through technological improvement.

6

Technological Improvement and Employment : This background along with background of the financial resources referred to above, should provide the real answer to the question: "How long subsidies to village industries ?" The question of subsidy to village industries can be solved in the measure in which provision is made for raising their vitality. The question has thus to be differently addressed. But, supposing enough provision is made for raising the vitality of village industries through technological improvement, what will be the effect, particularly of rural electrification, on the employment situation ? This question

again has been discussed so far against an unreal background. If the demand is taken to be constant or static, employment will be greater with simple tools than with improved tools worked with power. It is, however, possible to maintain the employment ratio even with technological improvement if there is proportionate expansion in the demand. It is also possible to raise the employment potential by diverting demand from the centralised sector to the decentralised sector by decentralising as many processes of the centralised sector as possible. The problem of avoiding technological unemployment, therefore, is a problem of expanding demand, on the one hand, and diverting it, on the other. There is, thus, scope for expansion of employment opportunities in two directions. One is the direction of raising consumption standards. There is a wide gap between the existing standard of living of our people and the minimum standard required; and the available employment potential is in proportion to the scope in expansion of demand which can fill this gap. The other scope for expansion of employment opportunities is to take over in the decentralised sector the existing production of consumer goods of the centralised sector. If this double scope for expansion of employment opportunities is taken into account, the problem of employment may have to be considered differently. On the basis of a minimum standard of living and a rational time-table of work providing cultural leisure, details of techniques will have to be worked out so as to meet the requisite demand. The level of techniques will then be decided by the availability of the total working population. The relation of techniques to employment is thus a matter not of assumptions against a static demand, but of investigation of the actual position arising out of the expanding demand, on the one hand, and the rational time-table, on the other. It is the purpose of the Intensive Area Scheme to carry out such investigations. Some indications in this direction are provided by preliminary investigations carried

out in three villages, in three different areas having different economic conditions. On a rough estimate, the three village plans propose to use up practically the whole of the surplus manpower to attain only 45 to 57 per cent self-sufficiency in respect of cloth on the basis of 20 yards per capita. Of this, the share of the ordinary charkha is 12 to 55 per cent, and that of the Ambar Charkha 45 to 88 per cent. If Ambar Charkha is fully adopted, cloth self-sufficiency attained will be between 66 to 89 per cent. This percentage will fall if cloth consumption is raised to 25 yards per capita, which is the desired minimum standard to be attained in the near future. If in addition to cloth, other requirements of a minimum living standard are taken into account, the shortage of manpower and the consequent scope for raising the level of techniques, consistent with the objective of full employment become evident.

7

The Method of phasing Improvement : This takes us into the realm of practical politics. The problem is no longer of academic interest, but of working out the actual stages or of phasing technological improvement. It is impossible to expect technological improvement all over the country simultaneously. It can only be achieved by stages both in regard to processes as well as regions. How is this phasing to be effective ? Who are going to be the first beneficiaries and how are those left out from such benefits to be helped to stand on their own vis-a-vis the first beneficiaries ? In other words, how are the claims of the two to be co-ordinated and reconciled ? Such co-ordination is the essence of planning. It is necessary not only from the point of view of social justice, but the interest of accelerating the tempo of technological improvement itself. In the absence of such co-ordination only the beneficiaries are enabled to push

up their production to the detriment of the rest of the production units. This gap of advantage created in favour of the beneficiaries works to push out of existence those who are not enabled to reap those benefits. This leads to the displacement of many units and not to their improvement. It also reduces the overall national production either by puttiug the less favoured units out of gear or at least by reducing their production. National production rises if all the production units, irrespective of their level of efficiency, are enabled to produce to their maximum capacity. This is how production is being raised in the case of iron and steel, cement etc. Although the cost of production of the different units in iron and steel differs considerably, so far as the market is concerned these prices are pooled so that the ruling price for the consumer is the same. Because of this planned co-ordination, production is not limited to the capacity of the most efficient units. This is how the less fovoured units should be given time and assistance to come up to the desired level of efficiency. In other words, this is the method of phased improvement of technology which can be adopted with suitable variations. If regulations and controls in favour of the less favoured units are necessary, it is only to make such phasing really effective. It is futile to expect the development of vitality of the village industries sector which is the same thing as phasing technological improvement without such protective regulations and controls.

8

Regional Planning : : While one method to achieve phased technological improvement is the adoption of the pool price as indicated above for all units of production in a particular industry, the other method is to bring about common ownership

of all such units working co-operatively in particular regions. Both methods eliminate conflicts of interests. A common ownership can effectively work out allotments of processes for different types of the region and the social objective of Antyodaya. In fact, it is only in terms of a common objective which can be expressed and achieved through a common price or a common ownership that the common production programme suggested by the Planning Commission can be really put into operation. Such common ownership again makes the town economy complementary to, rather than competitive with, the rural economy and helps remove the subordination of the agricultural economy to the industrial economy. Regional planning having common ownership of different types of units of production not only limits the acquisitive factor, but also mobilises resources to a greater extent for creating more amenities and services in rural areas. What is more, it throws open wider opportunities for development in rural areas and thus breaks their well-known idiocy. Such regional planning envisaging co-operative ownership provides a balance between centralisation and decentralisation, a balance which avoids regimentation and concentration of power, on the one hand, and inefficiency, on the other, which is one of the central problems requiring solution for the reconstruction of our society on the socialistic pattern. While action in regard to the pool price policy can be taken at the Government level, there is much scope for voluntary effort in regional planning which has its own value for building up the real inner strength of the people. It is the attempt of the Intensive Areas to organise such regional planning with voluntary co-operation.

9

The Guiding Principle: What will be the guiding principle of such regional planning, particularly inregard to industrial

units operating at different levels of efficiency? How will it co-ordinate and balance the respective claims of such units in the region? If it maintains lower techniques along with higher techniques through common ownership, how long will it do so and with what objectives ? Will it be necessary at all to maintain lower techniques, once common ownership is established ? If the economic structure is bad, it can be changed through such common ownership, but why not reap the benefits of the latest techniques? Answer to these questions depend on the choice of objectives. Common ownership may eliminate the profit motive, but what about the evils of concentration of power and regimentation attendant upon large-scale industries? Technical efficiency is certainly one objective to be achieved; but is it an end in itself or is it the only objective to be achieved at any cost? Are there no other objectives with which the objective of higher techniques is to be balanced? These other objectives are full employment and equality of opportunity for development. Looked at from a true perspective, the former objective is of secondary importance as compared to the over-riding consideration of employment and equality of opportunity. This should be the guiding principle for regional planning in which industrial processes are distributed between regional units, village units and home units, all being co-ordinated under a common co-operative ownership. Such co-ordination at the regional level will achieve a balance between centralisation and decentralisation. It will allot fields of operation to the three types of units on the basis of full utilisation of manpower. In this balance, certain processes will be pooled at the village level from the point of view of relieving man's drudgery ; and from the same consideration as also from the consideration of technical necessity of improving quality and productivity, certain other processes will be pooled at the regional level. To take a few illustrations : pulp manufacture can be organised

at the regional level, paper lifting at the home level. In regard to cloth manufacture, ginning of cotton and cloth finishing and calendaring operations as well as dyeing and printing can be organised at the regional level, carding at the village level, and spinning and weaving at the home level. For leather industries, tanning, carcass recovery and bone-meal manufacture can be organised at the regional level and leather goods manufacture at the home level. For pottery, clay moulding and baking in high temperature kilns can be organised at the regional level, low temperature bhattis at the village level and making kutcha pots at the home level. These are the broad indications of the approach of regional planning the size of which is a matter of investigation into the details of each industry.

10

The dynamic approach provides the motivating force for group action : This is a programme which can be implemented only by establishing a decentralised co-operative economy in place of the present centralised competitive economy. But how is the co-operation necessary for such group action to be brought about, particularly of the recalcitrants, when the village organisation based on group loyalty is largely disintegrated ? Fundamentally, this is a question of providing the motivating force for group action. The three pillars of our society, the joint family, the caste and the village as a unit of purpose, which promoted group action have been shattered as a result of the impact of British Rule which created classes of vested interests working against and exploiting the masses. What is worse, the individualistic tendencies of the present or the would-be classes are on th increase. One of the basic problems of reconstructing the Indian society on the socialistic pattern is, therefore, to bring about a balance between the individualistic

tendencies and group interests. How is this conflict of interests of the ambitious individuals and the group to be resolved? Basically, the conflict is the conflict of the static economy in which there are quarrels over sharing the limited opportunities. The solution lies, therefore, in the creation of wider opportunities through an expanding or dynamic economy. It is only this course of action that will secure the loyalty of the ambitious for group action. The three pillars of the social structure can also be re-built by claiming the loyalty of this class through satisfying their ambitions on the basis of increased opportunities. Viewed in this perspective, the pattern of decentralised co-operative economy can only be built up by combining the good points of city life and the good points of village life in the rural areas. The idiocy of the village life should be broken by provision of wider opportunities for growth and amenities for living a decent life. The need to look to cities for these should be minimised.

It is significant in this connection to note the observations made by Mr. Aneurin Bevan during his recent visit to India. He said:

> "The central problem of modern society, and particularly of revolutionary nations, is the relationship between the cities and the countryside. The history of civilisation was very largely the history of cities. When cities were overwhelmed, civilisation ceased. Civilisation had so far been an urban growth without any participation by countryside in the life of the cities. It is now clear behind a mass of apologies, reinterpretation and confession that the Russian revolution has been a marked failure. It is beyond doubt that however much Russia may have succeeded in producing modern techniques of production, the revolution has been a signal failure on its agricultural side. Agricultural production in the Soviet Union had gone down and the countryside seethed with discontent. This was true of Central Europe and also of Yugoslavia. Russia had been able to

mask her failure of agriculture by utilising her fallow land. It worked as a cushion. The application of the principle of collectives with mechanical farming and central control of land had proved to be a failure. India had no such cushion. She had no vast virgin spaces. She had to bring about economic revolution in harmony with the countryside. India would have to solve in her own way the problem of developing villages at the same pace as the urban areas. Perhaps, India had got a solution of the economic problems which was not based on the disruption of the Indian village community, but higher synthesis of community with modern development."

11

Proper presentation of the Problem: Which are then the likely recalcitrant elements in the rural population for the programme of village industries ? The first and foremost is the farmer. Apparently, this class feels that village industries entail some sacrifice on its part. In any case, village industries do not seem to appeal to it as working in its interests. But this conflict of interest is more apparent than real and is due to the wrong perspective of looking at the whole problem. If the farmer views the problem of rural economy in an integrated manner, he will realise that he has nothing to lose but everything to gain from the programme of village industries. In the first place, village industries are not meant merely for the non-farming sections of the village population. They do provide subsidiary occupations to the farmers themselves. Secondly, village industries reduce the pressure on land which, in turn, helps in reducing the direct and the indirect burden on the farmers. This also helps in improving the moral tone and security of the village life. Thirdly, they provide wider opportunities for development as well as greater resources for amenities to all sections, including the farmers. And finally, the farmers can

derive the greatest benefit from village industries if they succeed in achieving the power to fix the prices for their produce, through the achievement of local self-sufficiency. So far as the farmers are concerned, therefore, the question in relation to village industries is not that of conflict of interests, but of proper presentation of the problem. The artisan and the labour classes are directly benefited by village industries through greater employment opportunities. Thus, the only class which seems to be not interested in village industries is that of the village trader. Even he can be regarded more as a recalcitrant than an opponent. Although his interests seem to be tied up with the trade he carries on with towns and cities by way of exporting raw materials and importing finished goods, his overall quantum of trade has fallen under the static economy of the village. His ultimate source of prosperity being the purshasing power of the village people, he cannot attain prosperity in the midst of poverty. It is, therefore, in his own interest that the economy of the village becomes dynamic through programmes of village industries providing wider employment opportunities. On all accounts, therefore, to establish the decentralised co-operative economy through group action, what is to be combated is not so much the acquisitive factor as the static economy of the villages. It is only the dynamic approach of full employment and minimum standard of living that can force the recalcitrants out of their grooves. The very dynamism of the programme prepares the psychological ground for the change over and reduces the chances of actual struggle.

12

The Organisational Pattern : The question of the organisational pattern is not, thus, a simple affair to be dispersed with in terms of the mere hierarchy. This organisation has wider

implications and has to be conceived in terms of solving the basic problems of village industries. From this point of view, the organisation should be considered in its three aspects :

(1) the social structure;

(2) the sponsoring agency; and

(3) the business agency.

13

The Social Structure : As we have seen so far, the social structure is the most important factor on which depends the success of the village industries programme. It is the structure of the decentralised co-operative economy that provides the operative conditions for the development of village industries. This structure has to be built up through the method of planning involving social regulations and controls. The planning approach envisages the transfer of the rural trade and industries from the private to the public sector to be managed co-operatively. It is only the Government that can initiate such policies; but much ground can be prepared by regions adopting dynamic programmes with a view to providing minimum living standards and wider opportunites for growth. The programme of village industries has, thus, to be institutional rather than individualistic and has to be executed through the method of planning rather than through appeals to the self-discipline of individuals. This represents a reorientation in the method of executing the programme followed so far. Such reorientation is called for if the programme is to be universal rather than the symbolic one as at present.

14

The Sponsoring Agency : Evidently, there must be a sponsoring agency to bring about such a transformation of the

social structure. Naturally, the agency should be such as would subscribe to and strive for the desired transformation of the social order in the villages. The co-operative societies or the Gram Panchayats which are the present agencies in the villages, with their limited outlook and objectives, are not found to be suitable instruments for such a transformation. Another consideration is that this agency must belong to the people themselves. An Ashram composed of individual social workers cannot be said to be such an agency. The village people are not the masters of such Ashram and are not in a position to direct its affairs or take any initiative in its activities. That is why constructive activities so far carried out by Ashrams have not become the people's activities and have not influenced the social and economic life of the community. To be successful, the constructive programme must become the people's programme and its execution must be left to their initiative. Such an agency can be a registered body working for a rural area and composed of elected representatives of Gram Vikas Mandals coming within the jurisdiction of the area. There are special advantages in having such regional bodies covering a wider area than a village. Under this organisation the village will continue to be the basic unit working within the oceanic circle of the area. The area thus works not only in harmony with the village, but also provides a wider outlook, greater resources for development programmes and large structural units for regional planning.

Such regional agencies should be fortified by making available to them the services of experienced and constructive workers. This is the real scope and function of the hierarchy which by itself would prove to be ineffective without such organisational support. Once such hierarchical base is built up, it is easy to construct the super-structure at the district, the State and the central levels.

15

The Business Agency: It is, however, evident that the sponsoring agency should, in the main, limit its activities to its proper role and should sponsor co-operatives for business undertakings. This is necessary both from the practical and the idealistic considerations. If it engages itself in business transactions, the emphasis on the transformation aspect will be lost. Moreover, such arrangement does not make for self-employment of the artisans. It only creates a class of middle-men working as managements engaging artisans as wage earners. It thus defeats the very purpose for which it is formed.

Since the fate of village industries is inextricably linked up with the integrated development of the rural economy, the best form of the co-operative organisation at the village level is the multi-purpose co-operative society. Village artisans being scattered, it is difficult to bring them under a common society. Separate societies for different artisan would raise the management cost. Too many organisations at the village level may not only create confusion, but may also work at cross purposes, emphasising sectional interests. As most of the artisans are resourceless, they will find difficulty in securing the necessary finance. In a multi-purpose society all these difficulties are minimised. It not only solves the problem of raw materials wherever locally available, but also provides the market which is the toughest problem of village industries. It is only multi-purpose society in which all elements of the village community are represented that can work for village self-sufficiency. This is a very weighty consideration in favour of the multi-purpose society. The interests of village industries and of the artisans can always be protected by providing for earmarked funds for particular industries and regular wages and prices under a system of certification. If it is

found, however, that the idea of multi-purpose societies functioning comprehensively as stated above materialises only slowly, the second best course is to organise single craft or allied crafts societies within a radius of about five miles in the initial stages,

While multi-purpose or craft societies may meet the requirements of village self-sufficiency, it will be necessary to set up district federations of primaries to organise production for outside markets and to take off their surplus supplies. These federations should be reinforced by State participation both in respect of finance and management, so that, proper supervision and control are exercised over their functioning.

Thus the social structure of the decentralised co-operative economy, the regional sponsoring agencies and the business agencies together provide the organisational base for village industries.

CHAPTER III

1

Occupation Pattern of a Model Village : By 'Occupational Pattern' is generally meant the manner of distribution of trades and callings among the people of a given area. In a Socio-economically healthy community, the trades and callings are so distributed as to enable the people to produce, consume or deal in goods and services in a manner conducive to the maintenance of optinium levels of consumption and standards of living. The occupational pattern is the core of the pattern of socio-economic life of a community.

India's civilization through ages was an agricultural civilisation and the basic unit was the self-governing village. The political and economic structure was built from these village communities which were grouped into convenient larger units. The British rule in India, during recent centuries, however, disintegrated the village community life and its joint family system and, by devitalising rural industries, reduced the village into a producer of raw materials and consumer of imported goods. Consequently, an imbalance both in the economic and social spheres has grown in the country's economy. The country has become predominantly agricultural, with about 72% of the population depending on agriculture in 1951 as against 60% in 1881. Of the agricultural population, as many as 9 crores are agricultural labourers who have to live by working on the farms of others. On the social side, there is imbalance in the life of the village community. With the decline of joint family system and of the

unity of purpose of the village community, individualism and sectional interests haue grown and the harmony and peace of the old village system has given place to social insecurity. The basic problem of the country is to remove or rectify the various factors contributing to this socio-economic imbalance.

2

Objectives of an Occupational Pattern : A well-laid occupational pattern with definite objectives can help solve the problem. These objectives are both economic and social. First, the various occupations planned for the village must be capable of providing for the farmers, artisans, and other members of the community, full and integrated self-employment. In other words the pattern should not be a mere short-term arrangement to relieve unemployment and under-employment by absorbing a part of the labour force, but should be a long range plan to evolve a social order of decentralised co-operative economy. The pattern should provide the necessary facilities for raising both the overall production and the productivity per worker. Thirdly, employment should be so designed as to ensure the worker a minimum standard of living in the matter of food, clothing and shelter. Fourthly, on the basis of the unity of the life and purpose of a village, work must be so distributed among the workers that it would not turn into drudgery but would afford them enough leisure for cultural development. The period of work should be limited to 8 hours per day. Women may then put in some three hours' work, say in industries, in addition to some five hours of household work. The school-going child may devote about an hour to the family's occupation. Lastly, the occupational pattern should help eliminate the existing centralised competitive economy and pave the way for a decentralised co-operative economy. In other

words, it should help prevent the concentration of economic activity in the hands of the resourceful few who have financial resources as well as technological efficiency and should facilitate decentralisation of production and distribution on co-operative basis where necessary.

3

Aspects Of Village Community Life : Of the spheres of village activity referred to above, the first and foremost is agriculture-cum-animal husbandry. Though numerous other industries flourish in the country, agriculture-cum-animal husbandry will continue to be India's biggest industry and will engage a major portion of India's working force. Next to agriculture, cloth manufacture offers the largest scope for employment, while the other village industries rank only next to cloth in providing employment. Village services consisting of the teacher, the priest, the washerman, the barber etc., constitute the fourth source of employment. In the present conditions of community life, village services must necessarily have a wider import than the traditional ones. They must include education for childern and adults, health and sanitation. This enhances the scope for employment in this sphere of village activity. Fifthly, co-operative marketing is a new necessity. And lastly, the provision of a village service centre is an essential social responsibility of the community and is likely to open up opportunities for additional employment. The occupational pattern must take note of the necessity of these new services.

4

Full Employment Plan Of Vedchhi Village : Occupational pattern in a model village indicates a balanced distribution of manpower in the various spheres of village acti-

vity, on the basis of the social and economic needs of the community and the resources available. Such a picture is rather impossible to present for various reasons which will be indicated in this note. A detailed schematic distribution of manpower, though not on model lines, is, however, available for the Vedchhi village in Bardoli Tehsil in Gujarat. This plan, entitled 'Full Employment Plan of a Village' prepared by the Gandhi Ghar workers in 1952 envisages the full utilisation of the mandays available for the village against the former utilisation upto 66 per cent. Under the plan (vide appendix) agriculture and animal husbandary will take 55% and Khadi and village industries 33 per cent, the rest of the manpower being available for other development programmes.

5

Estimate of working force : A problem : The evolving of a model occupational pattern is beset with several problems. The first problem is determining the present working force and their work period so that the volume of manpower available for various activities may be known. This difficulty arises out of various factors such as age, seasonal nature of agriculture, household duties, and joint family system. Age: Though the working force is considered to be drawn from the age group of 15 to 55 years, actually many children of 10 to 14 years and adults of over 55 also form part of the present working force. The Agricultural Labour Enquiry of the Government of India has revealed that there were in 1951 about 1.6 million children engaged in agricultural labour for some 165 days in the year. Similarly, in certain industries like handspinning, several men and women over 55 years of age are employed while within the age group of 15 to 55 years, several persons may be unemployed for reasons like ill health.

Agriculture: The seasonal nature of agriculture and variations in land conditions present difficulties in estimating the work period. The work period per day per year in also different for men and women and depends on the nature of the agricultural operations. **Household duties:** The work period of woman presents special difficulties on account of her pivotal position in the family. Household work like cooking, fetching water, washing, and taking care of children takes a major portion of her time. And in addition to this work she has to help the man in his work. **Joint Family System:** Both joint families and single families comprise the households in the village and their position in regard to supply of working force is not the same. Joint families where considerable division of functions, domestic and outdoor, is possible, can spare more manpower than single families. All these factors make an estimate of working force of universal applicability difficult. The assessment of the present working force and an estimate of the working force and work period available for a planned development programme can be made only by means of survey of typical regions.

6

Problem of fixing norms of consumption and production: Another difficulty in preparing a schematic distribution of manpower is the absence of norms of cosumption and production. Consumption of goods and services largely depends on the physical and social conditions of a given area. In northern India, the cold climate over a large part of the year and the better build of the people necessitate a larger cosumption of cloth and food than in South India. Some data provided by diet surveys carried

out in various parts of the country by some nutrition research institutions and the N. S. S. indicate to some extent norms of consumption of food in various areas. Norm for cloth consumption can be worked out in a way from the data of the N. S. S. but their usefulness is limited as they are not quantitative but expressed in value. There are numerous other consumer goods for which norms of consumption are only notional. Norms of consumption are therefore necessary for numerous articles required by the villages, some of which are mentioned here :-

1. Cloth–Cotton, wool, silk.
2. Soap–washing and toilet.
3. Leather goods–footwear, other goods like water-bags, straps etc.
4. Fibre products–ropes, mats, bags, etc.
5. Match boxes.
6. Handware–agricultural implements.
7. Other metal-ware–brass, aluminium, copper, etc.
8. Pottery–utensils, building materials.
9. Paper–utility paper.
10. Wood–agricultural implements, carts, furniture and building materials.

It is necessary to determine the norms of consumption of these goods by carrying systematic surveys in typical regions.

Norms of production present a more formidable problem than those of consumption. This special difficulty arises out of two factors. First the existence of various kinds of production techniques in the village, some of which are mentioned here :

	Implement	Prod.	Time (hrs) per worker (Approximate)
1. Carding of cotton	i) Bow (medium)	3 lbs.	1
	ii) Dhunai Modhia (medium)	8 "	1
2. Handspinning	i) Kisan Charkha	3 hanks	8
	ii) Ambar "	6 "	8
3. Paddy husking	i) Dhenki	2 Mds. of paddy (dehusking & milling)	
	ii) Chakki	4 Mds. of paddy (dehusking only)	8
	iii) Mortar & Pestle	1 Md. paddy (dehusking & milling)	8
4. Oil pressing	i) Ordinary ghani	40 lbs. oil-seeds crushed 35% extraction	8
	ii) Improved ghani	90 lbs. oil-seeds crushed 40% extraction	8

The second factor is the variation in the size of the production unit. This is noticeable in the size of land holdings of the farmers in the agricultural sector and in the existence of self-employed artisans and master craftsmen running karkhanas in the village industries sector.

There are numerous items of agricultural and consumer goods for which norms of production at different levels of technique are yet to be fixed. Some of the important ones are :

(A) Agriculture and animal husbandry.

1. Manpower required for different crops.
2. Manpower for a unit of milk production.
3. Manpower for manure making.

Village Industries :

1. Soap making.
2. Leather tanning and leather goods manufacture
3. Match manufacture.
4. Fibre products.
5. Paper-making.
6. Gur & Khandsari manufacture.
7. Pottery - utensils and building materials.
8. Carpentry.
9. Blacksmithy.
10. Bee-keeping.

7

Rationalisation of Manpower : The estimate of the working force and the fixing of the norms of consumption and production provide the essential data on the basis of which standard and immediate goals may be fixed. This serves only as a background for a schematic distribution of manpower. But the essence of a proper distribution pattern of manpower lies in its rationalisation. Rational use of manpower consists in the employment of manpower in various economic and social activities in the village, in such a manner as to prevent under-employment, inefficient employment or drudgery on the one hand and to diversify the economy by equalisation of opportunities on the other. In the model village the available manpower has to be distributed among the several spheres of village activity-namely, 1) agriculture and animal husbandry, 2) cloth manufacture, 3) other village industries, 4) village services, 5) development, and 6) domestic work. This must be done in accordance

with a rational time-table of work in each of these spheres. Such a rational time-table will significantly change the present pattern of work in the village. In agriculture, uneconomic holdings will be consolidated into economic ones and under-employment and inefficient employment which are the cause of the present low productivity will be removed. In such a scheme of full and efficient employment the overall requirements of manpower may be less than at present. In cloth manufacture and other village industries, rationalisation must keep in view the possibility of rise in consumption standards or rise of new lines of production and should facilitate rise in the level of techniques accordingly.

Village services will demand more manpower than at present due to the addition of new services in accordance with present day needs. The co-operative marketing institution managed by a few individuals will help save most of the time taken by individual producers in procuring raw materials and disposing of finished goods, while the village service centre will help in division of functions. Development work consisting in the improvements to land and irrigation works, house and road constructions, should be included as it will provide considerable employment on productive works of permanent value. The most beneficial effect of the rational time-table will be in the sphere of domestic work of women. By this rationalisaton, the benefits of the joint family system will be conferred even on individual families. That is to say certain activities performed by individual families today will be continued by the women of the families at home and certain others will be undertaken collectively by a system of village service jointly managed by the village community. These may include flour-grinding by animal power, transport of manure and other refuse to compost pits by common bullock-carts, a village laundry, common bath-rooms, and joint tending of cattle. Such activities performed by a system of village services can relieve women of

much drudgery and give them cultural leisure.

In this sytem of rationalisation of manpower, units of production will be organised with a view to effecting economy. Processes of production will be distributed among home-units, village-units and regional units, in accordance with the level of techniques involved in the process. For instance, industries like spinning and weaving and paper-lifting are carried on in home units, certain processes like carding of cotton and firing earthen-ware in low temperature bhattis have to be carried on at village level and certain others like ginning of cotton, printing and dyeing of cloth, pulp-making for paper industry have to be undertaken at regional level.

Rationalisation of manpower, however, raises two problems of vital importance. The first is whether under rationalised agriculture village industries should be developed as whole-time occupations or as subsidiary occupations along with uneconomic holdings. Of course, even when agriculture is rationalised, the seasonal character of agriculture offers considerable scope for subsidiary occupations. Whether there should be a combination of agriculture and village industries or specialisation, or in other words, which industries should be carried on as whole-time occupations and which industries or processes as subsidiary occupations, is a matter to be determined according to the requirements of rationalised agriculture. The second problem consists in assessing the relative importance of khadi and village industries in their absorption of manpower and in ending the subordination of agricultural economy. It is possible that though khadi absorbs more manpower than all the village industries put together at present, the importance of village industries lies in their power to restore to the village the power to end the subordination of agricultural economy and in restoring the balance of occupations.

Village economy is at present static due to lack of organisation and rational use of manpower. The rationalisation of manpower on the basis of a proper estimate of the working force and the norms of consumption and production will impart dynamism to the economy of the village.

APPENDIX

BUDGET ESTIMATES OF LABOUR UNITS IN THE PLAN FOR VEDCHHI DURING THE FIRST YEAR

Man-days available for work.

1,54,800	Calculated @ 60% of the population. 1,16,100 mandays @ the rate of 45% for field work. 38,700 mandays @ the rate of 15% for indoor work.
1,800	Additional mandays available every year due to the increase in population at 13.5% in a decade.
1,56,600	

Man-days required in the first year		Probable utilisation of mandays at present	
69,902	(44.6%)	35%	Agriculture. 69,102 crop production. 800 production of manure.
18,718	(12%)	10%	Livestock and Dairy. 4,860 upkeep of bullocks. 11,160 ,, other cattle. 1,198 ,, sheep and goats. 1,500 ,, Poultry.
51,400	(32.9%)		Village Industries. 39,300 Cloth Industry.

	(25.1%)	8%	35,792 Production of Khadi.
			3,208 Carpet, Pati etc.
			300 Dyeing and Printing.
	(0.8%)*		1,300 Oil Pressing.
	(0.6%)		1,000 Flour grinding by bullock chakkis.
	(0.6%)		1,000 Pulse making.
	(1.3%)		2,000 Paddy husking.
	(0.6%)*		1,000 Pottery, brick making etc.
	(0.1%)		200 Lime making.
	(0.06%)		100 Carding and preparing beddings.
	(0.2%)		300 Masonry.
	(1.3%)		2,000 Workshops, for carpentry, smithy, fine work.
	(0.2%)		300 Tailoring.
	(0.3%)		500 Leather work.
	(0.1%)		150 Tanning of leather.
	(0.4%)		600 Bamboo work like baskets etc.
	(0.4%)		600 Rope making.
	(0.2%)		300 Stationery.
	(0.2%)		300 Toy making.
	(0.1%)		150 Match Making.
19,[illegible]00	(12.6%)*		Development Programme
			5,000 Land Development (major)
			800 Road Construction.
			14000 House building.
1,200	(0.8%)		Public Health and Sanitation.
			600 Sanitation.
			600 Public works.

1,800	(1.1%)		**Education.** 1500 Teachers. 300 Gardening and Physical training.
300	(0.2%)		**Administration.** 300 Gram Sevaks and servants.
600	(0.4%)		**Marketing.** 600 Purchase and sale of commodities.
10,000	(6.4%)		**Village Community Centre.** 10,000 Creche services etc.
		13%*	
1,73,720	111%	66%	

*Estimated present utilisation under items marked.

CHAPTER IV

1

How to implement the minimum standard programme: The concept of a basic minimum standard of living needs to be defined in terms of expendable income. On the basis of annual family requirements detailed below, it has been calculated that a family of five will require on an average an income of Rs. 1,800 per annum to enjoy a standard of living, which is considered to be the minimum necessary to sustain life at a reasonable level.

TABLE No. 1

Annual Family-Requirements

Items		Daily needs	Assumed Value	Total Rs.
A.	Food	ozs	Rs.	
1.	Cereals	80	300	
2.	Pulses	20	50	
3.	Milk	60	180	
4.	Vegetables (Green and non-leafy)	40	200	
5.	Oils and fats	8	250	
6.	Fruits and nuts	20	100	
7.	Sugar and gur	20	10	
8.	Spices	—	20	1,200
B.	Clothing & other wear		200	
C.	Repair and maintenance of houses and buildings		175	
D.	Health and medicine		25	
E.	Oldage insurance		50	
F.	Education, books etc.		50	
G.	Entertainments, recreation and miscellaneous		100	600
	Grand Total			1,800

As against the necessary minimum annual income of Rs. 1,800 the average family income today comes to about Rs. 1,400. But, the average family income does not in fact give a true picture of the actual living conditions of a great majority of our people. The vast population that live in rural areas do not earn even this meagre income with the result they have to forgo many of the necessaries.

* Table No. 2.

Percentage distribution of income group families estimated in rural areas:

Upto Rs. 600.	Rs. 600-1200.	Rs. 1200-1800	Rs. 1800-2400
20%	31.2%	19.9%	10.4%
Rs.2400-3600	Rs.3600-6000.	Over Rs.6000.	
9.5%	6.2%	2.8%	

This analysis of the level of earnings shows that more than 50% of the rural population earn less than the average national family income. As has been clearly pointed out by the recently conducted Agricultural Labour Enquiry, the average annual income of agricultural labour family which comprises nearly one-fifth of the total rural population, comes to only Rs. 447. Needless to say that, the appallingly low earning of this class chiefly accounts for the inertia prevailing in the rural areas and the static condition of our economy.

The above analysis bears out the contention that nothing worthwhile can be achieved by merely putting a ceiling on income. The ceiling of income of a few, however desirable it

* Estimation result of survey of 4,258 households in 946 villages. As in the lower groups income will necessarily be equivalent or not exceed expenditure incurred, income has been estimated on the basis of surveys conducted on the amount of expenditure incurred by each household – source National Sample Survey.

might prove to be from the psychological plane, will not lead to any radical transformation on the economic side. What is really needed is a dynamic programme for raising the living conditions of the people to a standard minimum. The programme should aim that essential things like employment, education, health shelter and leisure, besides food and clothing, that contribute to a decent life are not denied to anybody for want of resources.

In fine, the essence of planning lies in the solution of the problem of enabling the economically backward section of the population to attain the inviolable minimum income to maintain life at a reasonably desirable standard. It is with this objective in view that the Intensive Area Scheme has launched its programme for a minimum standard of living.

It is also significant that the Indore Session of the Congress adopted the resolution on the 'minimum standard' in preference to the one 'ceiling of income'. Explaining the background of this preference. Shri Nehru observed:

> "Saying that a man should not have more than so much a month was totally impracticable. You can say, of course, that every man above a certain income should be taxed 100 per cent. But you would not be able to enforce it and you will encourage all the wrong tendencies of deception, of hiding, of avoidance and all that. Apart from this, the question of incentives is important......I have seen in every country I have been to, socialist, communist or other, that the moment they took away these incentives, they suffered and they had to go back to providing these incentives.... If you achieve the minimum standard for every body, automatically you achieve the other thing-ceiling. It may not come in regard to a few but so far as 99.9% is concerned, it comes. Then, after achieving a minimum for everybody, you can take the next step".

The ceiling idea is also rejected as a negative aspect of equality leading to distribution of poverty. As against this, the

minimum standard programme is regarded as positive, implying provision of equality of opportunities to all. The minimum standard programme is a programme of Antyodaya. It is acceptable not only to the leaders of the country, but also has its appeal at the village level. In Antyodaya, the better off sections in the village discern their enlightened self-interest. The Antyodaya programme releases the creative energy of the non-productive or the less productive sections of the village which goes to add to its income. This helps in reducing the direct and indirect burden on the village and in raising its moral tone.

The programme of minimum standard or Antyodaya thus takes the line of least resistance. It brings about equality not at a lower level by distributing the limited wealth of the community, but at a higher level by creating more wealth through provision of equality of opportunities to every worker. Equality is thus better fulfilled through Antyodaya than through ceiling. Antyodaya also provides a better psychological lever to the people than the ceiling. If the better off sections in the village have to contribute more than others towards the creation of opportunities for the last man, which Antyodaya means, they also feel amply rewarded in the reduction of burdens on their income and in the social, cultural and moral environment of the village. Antyodaya thus provides incentives to the better off sections forming the minority to work for the enlightened self-interest of the community. It is not as if intencives are needed, however, only by the minority. They are much more needed by the poor sections and Antyodaya is especially fitted to meet this need, which is usually lost sight of whenever the question of incentives is discussed. It is also forgotten that incentives provided to the majority can raise production many times more than those provided to minority.

2

Equality Reduces Poverty : As is well said, inequality

Pampers the minority and depresses the majority. In fact, it is inequality that breeds poverty. Today's poverty can be traced to a situation in which only a few produce wealth which all share. Wealth consists in the conversion of resources of Nature into desired forms. Man can tap these resources in proportion to the development of his mind and creative energy. This is the logic of the story of different ages, the wood age, the stone age, the metal age, the electric age and the atomic age. It is not that in the wood or stone age there did not exist in nature metals or electricity or atoms, but man's mental make up then was capable of thinking of only wood or stone. The age thus signifies the stage of development of the mind of man rather than the provision of resources in nature. It is in proportion to the development of the mind of man that nature unfolds its resources. Inequality leads to the development of the mind of the minority and deprives the majority of such opportunities. This sets a limit to the production of wealth. This limit can be raised to the extent to which opportunities for development can be extended to the majority. If every one of the majority gets this opportunity, the limit can be raised to the maximum. It is equality, therefore, in the sense of equality of opportunities, that can produce the maximum of wealth. Poverty can hence be removed not on the strength of a few giants at work, but by developing and releasing the creative energy of the last person in society.

3

Fields for opportunities: The main factors which affect the development of personality are education, health, work opportunities and social security. If one of the two children having the same mental calibre is fortunate enough to study up to the age of 25 and the other has to leave it off at the age of 12, the difference in their mental development will be tremendous. The

one will be able to develop his faculties to a much greater extent than the other whose potential faculties may not only remain dormant, but may also die out. One child getting all the nourishment will be able to develop its faculties much better than another child deprived of this opportunity.One who gets work opporunities can develop his talents which get exercised through work, while the talents of the unemployed lie dormant. Similarly, one who gets opportunities to work in higher processes develops his talents more than the other who is condemned to work only in lower processes. It is for this reason that the persons engaged in production at the raw-material stage get less opportunity for development than those engaged at the finished product stage. The location of processing industries in towns and cities away from the villages, thus, deprives the village population of the development opportunities. Denial of work opportunities also drives people to take to borrowing which is a permanent source of depression and insecurity. There are other forms of insecurity, such as crop failures and cattle death which are more recurrent in this country than in others and which badly affect the lives of the village communities. If the development of personality is to be provided for, it is necessary for society to free the individual from the fear of insecurity in any form. Work opportunities education, health and removal of insecurity, thus, provide the fields in which equality of opportunities has to be created through a programme of minimum standard or Antyodaya.

4

The Levers of Strength: The programme of Antyodaya to be built on sure foundations has to be supported by proper levers. Broadly speaking, the following six levers can be applied for building up the real inner strength of the villagers so that

this programme of Antyodaya of minimum standard can be implemented:

(1) living wage;

(2) technolgical improvement;

(3) regional planning;

(4) occupational pattern for the village economy;

(5) social security programmes; and

(6) kitchen garden.

(1)**Living wage** : The Congress manifesto issued at Indore has promised a fair deal for landless agricultural labour. It says:

> "Landless labour constitutes an important element in the rural population of the country, and 'effective action should be taken to improve its economic position and social status. To this end, there should be expansion of work opportunities, fixation of minimum wage, allotment of house sites and free settlement schemes".

The minimum wage is a lever of social justice. This question of minimum wage in the agricultural sector has been under consideration, but has not yet made such progress.

During the First Five Year Plan, minimum wages have been fixed over their entire territories in the States of Punjab, Rajasthan, Ajmer, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Kutch and Tripura. In Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Mysore and Vindhya Pradesh minimum wages have been fixed for certain specified areas which represented low wage pockets. In a number of other States, Minimum Wage Legislation has not yet been implemented. This shows that under the programme of fixing Minimum Wages only an insignificant portion of the vast section of the agricultural labour population has been benefited.

In the final analysis, however, the issue is not one of minimum wage, but of living wage. It is not merely an issue of positive assistance, but of social justice and basic human values. Under the present economic structure, the primary producer in the village and his farm labourer get only residual wage which has no scientific basis. It makes no pretence to a living wage. Antyodaya can be achieved only if this basic justice of the economy of depreciating the labour of the primary producer is removed. This involves a reversal of the order of fixing prices of agricultural commodities. Instead of keeping these prices as residual as at present, they will have to be fixed on a scientific basis so as to provide a living wage to all workers at the base. Prices will have to be built up from this base upwards instead of breaking them down from the top. In its wider implication, this involves the removal of the subordination of the agricultural economy to the industrial economy and the establishment of parity between the two. This is a lever, therefore, which has to be worked up through a process of education. This liver can ce strengthened by executing the progranmes of village and regional self-sufficiency and co-operative marketing and by building up banking and technical institutions in the rural areas. Self-sufficiency gives a measure of control over market conditions which gives the power to fix prices of their produce.

(2) **Technological improvement** : Apart from the question of social justice, a fundamental basis for a living wage is the achievement of higher productivity through technological improvement. Social justice, if combined with low level of productivity, may not necessarily ensure a living wage which will provide the minimum standard of living. Thus, if social justice by itself cannot raise living standards, higher productivity without social justice also may not mean the rise of all, and, of course, under the competitive economic structure,

it usually means the raising of the living standards of the few at the expense of the many. If the object is Antyodaya, higher productivity cannot be isolated from social justice. It is a question of a social order in which powerful individuals are not allowed to appropriate the benefits of improved technology to themselves to the detriment of the general good. If the advantage of technological improvement is to be shared equitably by the community as a whole, the ownership and management of such improved techniques must be vested in the community itself. This is the real issue in regard to the introduction of improved techniques in our economy. It is only such group ownership of improved techniques that can eliminate conflict of interests and facilitate, rather accelerate, the phasing of improved techniques by working out common production programmes for particular regions, taking their overall resources in men and materials into account.

(3) Occupational Pattern: While technological improvement is one lever for raising productivity, a rational use of manpower is an equally important lever to achieve the same objective. Rational use of manpower means its full and efficient utilisation. Just as improved techniques without social justice fail to raise living standards of those who are on the lowest rung of the ladder, improved techniques without full and efficient utilisation of all the available manpower fail to achieve the objective in view. In a way, it can be said that the ends of social justice are fully served if full use is made of the capacity of the last man. The basis of the living wage is thus the higher productivity achieved through improved techniques with full or rational utilisation of the available manpower in a social group. Rational use of manpower, however, depends on the evolution of an occupational pattern for our villages. It is the occupational pattern that can provide equality of opportunities in

res ect of employment. The idea of occupational pattern takes into account the total manpower resources of every village and restores vigour into the rural economy by bal‑ncing agriculture with industries. If the occupational pattern is built on the basis of self-employment, it also eliminates the chances for exploitation. The total resources approach presents a picture to the village community which enables it to see its enlightened self-inrerest in the background of the occupational pattern. Since the community itself is exp cted to evolve this pattern by joint consultations and with a view to achieving the social objective of Antyodaya, this lever at once becomes effective, if it is properly worked up.

(4) **Regional Planning** : The lever of occupational pattern in the village economy can be made further effective if the pattern is extended and worked up for a region. It is the regional planning, bringing marketing and processing industries under the co-operative ownership, that can successfully eliminate conflict of interests, work out a common production programme for that region and facilitate implementation of the plan for proper occupational pattern. In a region, the deficiencies of one village can be supplemented by another. A region also provides greater resources for buildng up rural institutions for introducing technical improvements and for providing more services and amenities, all of which go to build up the rural economy. A region, thus, provides wider and better opportunities not only for work, but also for cultural development.

(5) **Social Security Programmes:** This is a lever which uplifts the community by ensuring equality of opportunity in respect of education and health and removing all kinds of insecurity in the village. It also moves the community towards its social objective in which the village community holds itself responsible to provide free education and health services to everyone irrespective of his economic status. To this end, the

village community sets apart resources or creates a common fund asset for meeting expenditures on these times. The best form in which this asset can be created is to create a community land in every village. The Punjab Government has enacted a law to create such community land in the villages for meeting their common expenditures. It is on account of this provision and its implementation that rural institutions are sprining up rapidly in the Punjab. If the community adopts the lever of the occupational pattern and provides work opportunities, free education and health services to everybody, the need to borrow for living does not arise. If it shares social expenditures of individual families, the need for borrowing is further reduced and if it also adopts insurance schemes for crop failures and cattle deaths, perfect security is established in the village. The lever of such a social security programme can greatly improve the moral environment of the village.

(6) **Kitchen Garden:** This is another lever which is capable not only of raising the nutritional level of the village communities including the poorest families, but also of solving the problems of village sanitation. If every house in the village has a kitchen garden at its back to the extent of one-third or one-half acre of land, it can provide for the family the necessary vegetables and fruits throughout the year. It can also enable it to maintain a cow and incidentally provide space for latrines and for preparing manures by utilising all kinds of refuse. The kitchen garden can thus help in increasing manurial resources of the village. The land brought under kitchen garden from agricultural purposes; is no loss to the farmer. On the contrary, it raises his production. The kitchen garden brings children and women of every family into close contact with nature and can be turned to good account for providing training in botany and soil chemistry. So far as agriculturists are concerned, it is a question of adjustment of land so as to pro. kitchen garden to

all the families. It is only in the case of the landless in the village that the question regarding the provision of land arises. The community should be persuaded to solve the problem in its own larger interests.

A description of the social security programmes that have been undertaken at Kamelpur, given in the appendix, will show how the lot of the poor people can be improved by taking up such programmes. Through the operation of the Security Programmes, the economically backward sections of the people are provided with the essential taking of life. As has been explained above, a sum of Rs. 1,800 per annum or Rs. 150 per month is required for a minimum standard of living of an average family in the countryside. Expenditure under items like education, health, old age, housing, recreation etc. that are intended to be covered under the Security Programme amounts to Rs. 400 for a year for a family. The expenditure on clothing and other wear which comes to Rs. 200 per family per annum can be avoided by making every family self-sufficient in cloth, through plying the Ambar charkha. Hence, the plying of Ambar charkha and the operation of Social Security Programmes cover an expenditure of Rs. 600, which amounts to 1/3 of the expenditure of the annual family requirements. In other words, once the Ambar charkha and the social Security Programmes take a deep root in the village, the task of assuring a minimum standard of living is reduced to the question of finding out a remunerative employment that gives Rs. 1,200 per year, or Rs. 100 per month for every family. This is essentially a problem of increasing the productive capacity of the village industries and the intensive development of agriculture.

The potentialities inherent in the security programmes for raising appreciably the living condition of that section of the population which most urgently requires help need no explanation. The guarantee of food, cloth, work, shelter and education

removes the fear of insecurity in primary. things of life. If, with the increase in the income of the communiiy, the security programmes are extended to cover crop failures, cattle deaths, any loss due to accidents, etc, the individual is freed from all kinds of insecurity which is pre-requisite for the development of his personaiity and his moral advancement. The amout of Rs. 150 per month required for the minimum standard looks rather high, but conceived in terms of services, amenities and articles of consumption provided by this level of income, it may not be difficult of achievement in the near future. In fact the very concept of the minimum standard must provide the necessary incentives to people to exert themselves to achieve the target.

5

The content : The concept of the standard of living is a highly confused issue which requires clarification. It suffers greatly from a part perspective in that it is usually related to the physical plane without reference to the mental and the spiritual planes. There is no doubt that in regard to these two planes, the standard should be the highest, as this standard represents the degree of the development of the personality. So far as the physical plane is concerned, the question to be considered, however, is whether the standard should be high or scientific. As our Dharmashastra says, शरीरमाद्यम् खलु धर्म साधनम् (man's body is the first instrument or means of development). The body should receive all the creature comforts necessary to maintain it as a fit instrument. The end of the development of personality, however, can be achieved only if the body is regarded as a means and not as an end in itself which it becomes, if emaployment becomes the aim of life. It is the wrong prespective of high standard that turns the aim of development into that of enjoyment and glorifies the means as the end, thus defeating the

very purpose of the real end. Neither does in actual reality standard higher than the scientific one gives man greater happiness. If from the point of view of the scientific standard, one pound of cereals per day is enough for him taking or wanting to take more than one pound hardly secures him greater happiness or satisfaction. On the contrary, it may do him harm by spoiling his system.

The idea of high standard at the physical plane raises false ambitions in individuals. In fact, high standard tends to become synonymous with high ambitions and as Bhartrihari says: सकलदरिद्री स एव यस्य तृष्णा विशाला । (That man is the poorest whose ambitions are the highest). The perspective of high standard which signifies high ambitions, therefore, can hardly make a man happy. Apart from this, it also encourages wrong social tendencies in man. A person having high ambitions, is hardly satisfied with the enjoyment of the fruits of his own labour. To satisfy his ambitions, he is driven to snatch the fruits of others' labour. In other words, high ambition leads to exploitation. This is how a wrong ideal makes individuals miserable by raising false ambitions in them which are bound to remain unfulfilled and creates conflicts and tensions in society. The slogan of high standard of living at the physical plane, therefore, unwittingly ill serves the individual as well as society. The sooner this slogan of the high standard is replaced by that of the scientific standard, the better it will be in the interest of individual development and world peace. While the perspective of high standard raises false ambitions and wrong social tendencies, the perspective of scientific standard teaches the art of simple living and high thinking. The perspective of scientific standard is not only relevent to the consideration of Antyodaya, but is an essential part of the technique of implementing it. While our masses require to be lifted from their present morbidity, it will be a disservice done to them if they

are made miserable by being misled into wrong tracks of false ambitions. The swing should not be from one extreme to the other. They should be helped in cultivating healthy attitude and creative values. While aspiring for the minimum of the creature comforts required from the point of view of the scientific standard, they should learn the art of deriving happiness and mental satisfaction by simple living.

APPENDIX

Social Security Programme at work in Kamelpur:

The social security programme consists in the acceptance of the idea of Gram-Parivar by the village community to provide a minimum standard of living assuring work, health, education, housing etc. to every member. It also consists of accepting a social responsibility for eliminating all forms of insecurity. The programme prevents the poorer families from further indebtedness by making the richer members share the cost of amenities in the best interests of the community. It will thus help to narrow the disparity between the incomes of the rich and of the poor in the community.

This programme in a limited way has been introduced in the Kamelpur Plan in June, 1956. The following note on the work done will give an idea of its potentialities in building up a social structure of Antyodaya.

The Programme consists of six items:

1. Education,
2. Health,
3. Hygiene and sanitation,
4. Welfare of children,
5. Guarantee of employment, and

6. Social expenditure. The working of the various items is given below:

1) **Education:** A junior high school for boys was started in July, 1956, with open-air-class rooms. Though the recurring expenditure of the school is borne by the Gram Vikas Mandal, the benefit goes to some of the school going children of the surrounding villages also. Parts of the cost of running the school as well as the cost of books and stationery and the school fees of the students are covered under the programme. The total expenditure under books and fees was about Rs. 152 of which the tuition-fees were Rs, 64 and the cost of the books and stationery Rs. 88. Thirty-eight pupils of the basic school and 5 of the junior high school benefited under the scheme.

2) **Health:** In the absence of medical facilities for the village and neighbourhood within a radius of four miles, a small dispensary was opened at Kamelpur in July, 1956, with one Vaidya in charge. During the nine months ended March, 1957, about 3,300 patients or roughly 12 per day received treatment about 600 of them being patients from nearby villages.

Those who came from other villages had to pay a nominal fee and the cost of medicine. The total expenditure under medical aid amounted to Rs. 1,716 against which Rs. 414 was the income from the above fees. The balance of Rs. 1,302 being the net expenditure, was met from the funds provided under the programme.

3) **Hygiene and Sanitation:** With a view to eradicating the malaria menace, the Gram Vikas Mandal acquired D. D. T. from the District Health Department, and the entire village was sprayed with D. D. T. Another activity under this programme was the filling of a low-level open ground in the centre of the village with 200 cart-loads of earth through Shramdan.

The village has good streets with drains. But they were

not cleaned properly. Formerly, there were no regular sweepers to clean the streets. The respective house holders did the sweeping of the ground in front of their houses, but it was found that by this method the entire village streets could not be kept clean. Hence two sweepers were appointed since last January. Clay pipes were also laid to let out the sewage water.

4) **Welfare of Children :** In addition to free education facilities, powdered milk received from the District Health Authorities, was distributed free of cost. A children's park had also been opened and necessary facilities have been provided for enabling the children to play and spend their time merrily.

5) **Guarantee of Employment :** The Gram Vikas Mandal had taken upon itself the responsibility to provide employment for a whole day or part thereof, in the village Parishramalaya to any villager of Kamelpur who remained unemployed. A wage of one anna per hour of work has been fixed. At present, cotton sliver-making is the activity provided at the Parishramalya under the programme. Upto 31st March, 1957, work for 14,317 man-hours was provided to local unemployed persons, consisting of women and childern. Excluding the wage payable for the work at current rates fixed for sliver-making, this arrangement for the unemloyed entailed an extra expenditure of Rs. 10 from the funds provided under the programme.

6) **Social Expenditure :** A beginning has been made in respect of common undertaking of social functions and so far one ceremony was performed at a cost of Rs. 200, the expenditure being shared by the village community.

Income and Expenditure

Funds: The necessary funds for carrying out the programme are obtained from every family by a system of progressive

contribution according to income. Donations in cash, commodity and labour are also accepted. The farmers pay 1/40th of their total produce and Re. 1 per mensem per plough in cash, while the poor pay in the form of labour. The total expenditure under the six items amounted to about Rs.1,700. Excluding Rs.400 received from fees towards medical aid given, the net expenditure from the funds of the village was Rs. 1,300 for 500 inhabitants in 80 households. This comes to Rs. 2/8/- per person or Rs. 16/- per family per 9 months. It worked out to -/4/- per individual and Rs. 2/- per family per month, although actually the contribution was based on income.

Impact of the Programme : The programme has attracted attention not only of the people of Kamelpur, but also of the surrounding villages. The enthusiasm shown by the villagers in filling the low-lying area and in sharing the expenditure on social ceremony was significant. Provision of houses for poor Harijan families has already been undertaken. The Junior High School and the Dispensary may as well form the nuclei of larger units which can serve the entire population of the area. It is expected that the security programmes would gradually be extended to other items like crop failures cattle deaths etc. so as to confer benefits in a larger measure on the people living in the area.

PART II

By

Shri Vithal Rao Patwardhan

CHAPTER I

AN OUTLINE PLAN FOR MURUD REGION

The Intensive Area Scheme at Murud was started in July, 1954. Prior to this, the Rural Re-construction Society of Murud had done some work for promotion of education. After the Area was taken up under the scheme closer contact with villagers was estabjished, with a view to getting their co-operation. Efforts were also made to collect some data about the general conditions of the villages with the help of the Tahsil Officials. A general note was prepared on the agricultural and other problems of the villages of the area. A discussion of this note at a meeting of the villagers created in them a deep interest in understanding and solving their problems. As direct participation of the villagers in discussions appeared helpful in ascertaining the general needs of the villages, these meetings were made a regular feature. Gram Vikas Mandals were formed at some of these meetings.

As a follow up, detailed village surveys were conducted in accordance with prescribed village and family schedules, in the villages of Karakata, Watwada, Shirala and Murad. The remaining villages in the Area were then covered by the rapid survey method. Karakata village was taken as a laboratory village and a plan for its intensive development was prepared early in 1956. The participation of the villagers in the survey work and their eagerness to implemant the plan for development were noteworthy.

It was soon found, however, that while a village plan for development by self-effort had the support of the village people, it had its own limitations. Programmes of development

for an individual village by itself could not help it to become a self-contained and self-sufficient unit in all respects. A village plan raises problems which the village as an isolated unit cannot overcome. These problems relate to vital economic activities such as agricultural and industrial production marketing, training and research, education, health and social relations. In respect of production, a village cannot possibly maintain a textile dyeing and printing unit, a leather tanning unit or even a paper pulp-making unit. Marketing does involve a measure of interrelationship with the surrounding area, particularly when a surplus producti is left over in the village. Similarly, village unit can hardly undertake to provide facilities for training of works or for research in techniques, or even for education of children beyond the primary school stage. Nor can it maintain a health centre for its people from its own resources. in social relationship such as marriage, a village is only a part of a larger structural unit. Regional planning is thus a natural corollary of village planning,

These essential requirements can, however, be met by the co-ordinated efforts of a group of villages. While the bulk of the primary needs of the village can be met by planning at the village level, certain others must be planned at higher levels for a region, the operative principle in such planning being the maintenance of a balance between decentralisation and centralisation in the best interests of the community. Villages in a given group become naturally complementary to one another. The basic objectives in such planning should be not only economy of common ownership of equipment so as to facilitate the introduction of the highest techniques in production, but the provision of employment and equalisation of opportunities which alone can ensure rational utilisation of resources and Antyodaya. This is the rationale of regional planning and

forms the basis of the outline of the regional plan presented here.

2

The Murud Region : The Murud region, part of the former Hyderabad State, is now added to the Bombay State. This area which covers 314 sq. miles has a dry climate, the temperature varying between 65° to 110° F. The region has become barren on account of the de-forestation done some 40 years ago, and consequent soil-erosion on a large-scale. Some good soil is left only in the basin of the streams that run across this stretch of land. The average rainfall is about 25". The monsoon starts usually in the first week of June, preceded by strong winds for about a month. During the last four years, however, rainfall has increased to 55 to 65 inches per year. Though normally rainfall is well-distributed, it has been very irregular during the last four year. There are few rivers in the area and the canals dry up by December or January and small tanks and ponds by January.

The Area extending over a radius of 10 miles from Murud, a marketing centre, has a pucca road running between Osmanabad and Latur and a light railway line from Kurduwadi to Latur. There are a few other tracks across the region, but they are useless except during October and November.

And Its People : The region is dotted with 16 villages as shown in Table 1 and comprises a population of 19,572 which is predominantly Maharashtrian and which consists of Brahmins, artisan classes and Harijans. Harijans are generally landless and live in hamlets at the outskirts of villages. They have their own separate wells.

TABLE I

Villages In Murud Region

1. Watawad
2. Rayagavan
3. Borgaon

4. Gumphawadi
5. Tandulja
6. Nayagaon
7. Jayafal
8. Padoli
9. Shiradhon
10. Karkata
11. Gadhawad
12. Shirala
13. Wagholi
14. Sarola
15. Matefal
16. Murud

Age-Groups : Age-wise distribution of the population is presented in Table 2. Of the 19,572 persons in the Area, 9,417 or 48 per cent of the population constitute the labour force, comprising persons of the age-group 15 to 55 years. About 24 percent of the population are children of school-going age, while 11 percent of the population are above 55. The ratio of male to female population is 52 : 48.

TABLE 2

Age-group years	Males	Females	Total	Percentage	Remarks
0 - 5	1750	1650	3400	17	
6-14	2315	2435	4750	24	School-going age population.
15-55	5009	4408	9417	48	Working population.
56 & above	1086	919	2005	11	
Total	10,160	9,412	19,572	100	

The population being predominantly Maharashtrian, it has all the cultural traditions of Maharashtra. About 5 per cent of them are "Warkaris" who are strict vegetarians and abstainers, making pilgrimages to Pandharpur twice a year. Under former Hyderabad Government, the people were used to feudal ways of land tenure and life and were ignorant of their democratic rights. The feudal landlords took little interest in the development of the area or the improvement of the lot of the peasantry. Consequently, people became submissive and were in a state of inertia until political consciousness was awakened by the national struggle for independence. For a time, the Razakar movement and other disorders suppressed their aspirations, but there was some political ferment. The police action of the Government of India against Hyderabad and the State's subsequent status as an integral part of India brought peace and hope to the people. While, under the former feudal rule, there was little socio-economic development in the Area, there was now a great scope for development on the lines adopted by other parts of the country. Veterans started their work and soon sowed the seeds of development. They tried to establish democratic traditions and to create self-confidence among the people as well as a proper atmosphere for the social and economic development of the region.

Natural Resources : This part of the Deccan Plateau has scanty natural resources. The chief agricultural crops are cotton, groundnut, and sugarcane. The villages of Gumphawad and Karkata produce "G 22" or "1422" cotton which is used for fine yarn spinning. The Latur area is declared reserved for the Bombay mills producing fine yarn. This and other types of local cotton go to Bombay through Barsi or Latur which are the nearest marketing centres. The other crops grown are jowar, pulses, wheat, paddy, ambadi, chillies and sesamum, besides a few minor crops like kardi, coriander and castor.

Occupations: Agriculture is the main occupation of the people engaging some 3,676 families of land owners and tenants and landless labourers. Table 3 shows there are 61,723 acres of land in the region out of which 44,855 acres are under cultivation. The percentage of cultivable fallow and grasing and barren land is high. Obviously, the soil erosion has adversely affected the fertilty of the land and the agricultural occupation of the Area. Out of the total acreage more than 17,003 acres of land have hardly any soil left on them due to erosion. Of the 44,855 acres of cultivable land, some 17,429 acres are slightly better as they have some top soil suitable to crop rotation, while 20,000 acres are medium light type and the remaining 7,425 acres good black soil. On the light medium type soil, the rate of erosion is just equal to the rate of formation of the soil. Though the soil appears good, most of the humus in it is washed away by rain every year. This reduces the capacity of land for holding water. This type of soil requires well-distributed rainfall. If there is heavy rainfall, water accumulates on the soil and harms the roots of crops. If the interval is lengthened by about a week or so, crops die.

Table 3.

Land Classification in the Region

Area	Acres	Percentage
Total land included in the plan of the Region	61,723	100
Under cultivation	44,855	72.7
Cultivable fallow	11,884	19.2
Grazing, Barn and rest	4,984	8.1

Distribution of Land: The land is distributed among 2,307 cultivating families as shown in Table 4. Due to the barren

condition of the land, 25 acres are considered an economic holding in the area.

Table 4
Distribution Of Land

Acres of Land	No. of families	Percentage
upto 25	1251	54.2
26- 50	711	30.8
51-100	322	14.0
Above-100 acres	23	1.0
Total	2307	100.0

Cattle Population : The Murud region has livestock of 21,61 heads, of which cattle are 18,314, horses and mares 68, sheep and goats 2,976, as detailed in Table 5. The barren land and cultivable fallows are used for grazing extensively from August to December, but the quality of grass is poor. The fodder of jowar (12,810 acres) just helps a little to improve the general quality of the cattle-feed. No green fodder is available in winter and summer. Only bullocks age given some concentrates. There is no programme of improving the breed of the cattle in the area. Consequently, the quality of cattle at present is very poor.

Table 5
Cattle Population

Cows	4,189	Calves	2,333
Oxen	7,362	,,	2,386
He-Buffaloes	192		
She-Buffaloes	1,870	,,	242
Horses	20		
Mares	48		
Goats	1,725		
Sheep	1,251		
Total	16,657		4,961

Agricultural Practices: Except for the iron ploughs which are now fairly in vogue, there are hardly any implements introduced in the Area. These iron ploughs have become necessary and are available on hire from shop-keepers and rich farmers. The customary "Wakhar" and "Seeddrill" etc. are still used.

Water Supply: Due to want of adequate running water, irrigation has to be done from wells of which there are 589 in the region. Of these wells, 261 are unfit for use and badly need repairs. Only 328 are in use for irrigation. Poor percolation of rain water into the subsoil causes wells to dry up soon. Very few of them can irrigate land during April and May. Fresh water wells number 100 and are used for the supply of drinking water. Of those 100 fresh water wells, 50 dry up by February, making it necessary for the people to carry drinking water over long distances.

The method of composting followed is unscientific and wasteful, the pits being too deep or too shallow. Heaps of dry dung and other cattle-shed refuse are a common sight. Much energy is wasted in collection of dung, but the quality and value of manure are too poor for the labour involved.

Farmers keep their own seed for jowar, groundnut, tur, wheat, etc., but a growing tendency to use better seed is noticeable. However, only 20 per cent of the land-owners can afford to buy good seed from the Government Agricultural Department. For others the procurement of good seed is a problem because they have to pay 125 to 150 per cent more in kind on borrowed quality seed. This difficulty leaves them hardly any choice in selecting seed.

Table 6 presents the crop pattern and the estimated production of the area. It can be seen from the Table that the production per acre is very low.

TABLE 6

Present Crop Pattern and Production

Crop	Acreage	Production in mds.	Production per acre (mds.)
1. Jawar–all types	12,810	1,02,480	8.0
2. Cotton	5,010	20,040	4.0
3. Groundnut	4,320	21,600	5.0
4. Tur	3,290	9,870	3.0
5. Gram	2,930	5,860	2.0
6. Mug–Matki	1,950	1,960	1.0
7. Wheat	5,870	23,480	4.0
8. Paddy	760	3,040	4.0
9. Ambadi	639	957	1.5
10. Coriander	640	960	1.5
11. Karadi	510	1,280	2.5
12. Karala	410	630	1.5
13. Sugarcane	407	12,210	30.0 (gur production)
14. Chillies	357	2,485	7.0
15. Sesamum & Castor	430	643	1.4
16. Miscellaneous	4,522	4,522	1.0
Total	44,855		

The farmers have very few subsidiary occupations, the only ones being poultry-keeping and dairying. Even these industries have not received enough attention. During the last five year, farmers have been trying with little success to sell their milk and poultry and eggs in neighbouring towns and big villages.

3

Village Industries : The few village industries existing in the area are those depending on agricultural raw-materials. Khadi work is carried on in the area to some extent. Sugarcane crushing and gur-making are also pursued, but they are uneconomic. Crushing is done by bullock-driven kolhus or low horse-power engines, resulting in low output and loss of time and a rise in the cost of production to as much as Rs. 3 per maund of gur produced.

Village industries (as shown in Table 7) provide employment for 463 families or only 6.9 per cent of the people. Even those who are employed in village industries find only part-time employment.

Table 7

Present Occupational Pattern

Occupation	No. of Families	Total number of persons employed	Period of unemployment in months
Agriculturists			
I Land owners & tenants	2,307	11,028	33,084
II Landless labourers	1,369		
Total	3,676	11,028	33,084
Artisans			
Carpenters	85	170	444
Smiths	27	54	
Chamhars	74	148	
Kumbhars	32	96	
Tailors	62	93	

Telies	31	62	434
Barbers	42	42	
Brick-layers	50	100	300
Stone Masons	42	84	168
Washerman	12	24	
Basket Makers	6	12	
Total	463	885	1,346
Trade			
Shop-keepers	126	252	
Restaurant-Keepers	30	90	
Kasars	8	8	
Total	164	350	
Others			
Teachers	63	63	
Doctors	5	5	
Brahmins	39	39	
Gurav	8	8	117
Total	115	115	117
Grand Total	4,418	12,378	34,547

Marketing: Due to lack of goods and communications and lack of agencies for marketing, marketing is not developed well in the area. The farmers are obliged to sell away their crops soon after harvest for various reasons like pressing need for finance to meet household needs, need to repay loans immedia-tely, and inadequate storage facilities. Marketing is now done by merchants of Latur, Kalamb and Barsi. Petty merchants in places

like Murud and Shiradhon also sell their local purchases to the bigger merchants of Barsi and Latur. The lack of facilities for marketing has been a great handicap to the peasantry of the area.

Exports and Imports : The trade of the region consists in exports valued at Rs. 12.32 lakhs and imports valued at Rs. 14.52 lakhs thus showing an unfavourable balance. The chief items of export are cotton, groundnut and pulses, while imports mainly consist in cereals, cloth, leather goods, sugar and groundnut, besides sundries like tobacco and utensils (See Table 8.)

Table 8

Exports	Value in Rs.	Imports	Value in Rs.
Cotton	5,10,000	Groundnut	81,000
Groundnut	3,86,400	Sugar	52,596
Pulses	2,44,452	Kerosene	21,915
Gur	44,000	Coconut-oil	22,000
Miscellaneous	40,250	Soap	3,300
Hides	6,900	Cloth	2,46,600
Total	12,32,272	Other Cloth	21,915
		Woollen Cloth	10,950
		Leather Goods	43,830
		Pots & Pans	21,915
		Tobacco	9,900
		Betel-leaves	13,149
		Betel nuts	44,000
		Bidi, Cigarettes	43,830
		Iron Implements	12,000
		Machinery	30,000
		Lamps, Stores-equipment	13,149
		Cereals	7,60,000
		Total :	14,52,049

4

General Condition Of The People

Unemployment : The bulk of the population labours on land, but is under-employed. Agriculture provides employment to 11,028 persons but the period of unemployment among them is 33,084 man hours while non-agricultural occupation, viz., industries, trade and services employ 1350 persons among whom the period of unemployment is 1463 months as already shown in table 7. The agricultural labourers are unemployed for about 27.8 per cent of the total working period. Consequently, their standard of living is lower than that of the artisans.

Food : The diet of the people of the area is defective inasmuch as it lacks the protective foods, besides giving a lower calorific total than prescribed by nutritional standards. Table 9 presents the composition of the customary dietary of the people as against the standard requirements. This is not the diet only of those who cannot afford better food. Even the well-to-do do not take much vegetables or pulses. This ill-balanced diet was probably due to poverty; but it has become a habit with the entire population and this habit continues.

Table 9

Present and Standard Diet Compared

Items	Present Diet	Standard Diet
	Oz.	Oz.
Cereals	18.00	16.0
Pulses	1.00	3.0
Vegetables & Fruits	0.18	8.0
Oils	0.40	1.5
Milk	0.60	8.0
Sugar & Gur	0.75	2.0

Health: This food deficiency has its effect on the general health of the people. Pubic health is rather poor. Leprosy has a large incidence among the population of the region. In some villages, it has affected more than 5 per cent of the population. Medical aid is not adequate, there being only 5 qualified doctors for the whole region. The nearest hospital is at Latur. A clinic is run by the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi at Chikurde were 500 patients are regularly treated, while at Murud 250 patients undergo treatment at the local clinic. Patients are usually treated by several unqualified medical practitioners as well as by numerous *Mantriks* and *Bawas*. Difficulties of tranport are partly responsible for inadequate medical aid.

Housing: The Murud region is typical of the unsatisfactory condition of rural housing in India. A typical house in Marathwada consists of a rampart-like square divided into rooms and compartments. Separate space inside the quadrangle is kept for the cattle-shed. This type of structure had been evolved in olden days, so as to ensure safety and security. Houses have few windows. This is partly due to the stormy weather to which the area is often exposed. Even the recent constructions where windows are provided, are often found with their windows closed for the same reason. The houses of rich and poor are alike in design. They are built in stone and mud. About 80 per cent of the houses are Kutcha ones, while 20 per cent may be called pucca constructions and 40 pre cent of the houses have galvanised sheet roofs due to scarcity of timber. Crumbling houses are a common sight in the area. Even the huge constructions of some Inamdars and Patels are in the same condition. The chief cause of this crumbling of houses was the recent unusually large rain which melted away the mud structures. Inadequate attention due to poverty was another cause. The houses of landless labourers and Harijans are in a very deplorable condition. They hardly serve as shelter against sun and rain.

Sanitation and Lighting: In Murud and Shiradhon, the Gram Panchayat looks after the repairs of the main-road and drainage. These two villages have some street-lighting. In Murud, however, electric lights are given by the Rural Construction and Social Service Society.

Education: The Rural Reconstruction and Social Service Society started this work at Murud with a view to improving the education of the school-aged children, numbering 4,750 in the region. About 43.6 per cent have taken advantage of the educational facilities offered by the Society. The general condition of education in the area can be understood from Table 10. Murud is the educational centre of the region. During the last 5 years, it has provided the area with considerable educational facilities. It has a multipurpose high school with courses for agricultural and technical education. There are 14 primary schools and two middle schools in the region. Of the 16 schools in the region, 13 have new buildings.

Table 10

Number of educated persons in the Region

Age	4th Std. Passed.	8th Std. Passed	Graduates
6-15	B. 490	B. 21	–
	G. 47	G. 1	–
16-55	M. 1,363	M. 67	M. 4
	F. 99	F. 0	F. 0

Of the 2,053 students in the area, only 328 are girls. This small number is due to the fact that many mothers expect their daughters to assist them in household work. Another reason for this small number of girls going to school is the use of Urdu as the medium of instruction in schools. The number of pupils in general is rather small in the higher

standards starting from the fifth. It is because the pupils have to go to other villages for education above fifth standard and, therefore, the parents prefer sending the boys to the farm to sending them to school located in another village. Murud is nonetheless growing in importance as an education centre. It has at present 760 pupils. Of them 304 come from other villages, and some 200 students of distant villages are staying at Murud for education. The Rural Reconstruction and Social Service Society is conducting a Boarding House for some 105 pupils of whom 39 are of the backward classes.

5

Other Institutions: Murud region has some other institutions as well. The Gram Panchayats of Murud and Shiradhon have been active since 1950. The other villages will now have Gram Panchayats in accordance with the new legislation of Bombay Government requiring the constitution of Gram Panchayats for villages with a population of 1,000. Murud has a weekly fair of cattle, agricultural produce and consumer goods under the aegis of the Gram Panchayat. The business of the Murud Market has doubled since the starting of the weekly fair. The Gram Panchayat of Shiradhon is also actively looking after the general sanitation and welfare of the village.

Co-operation has played an important role in the economic life of the people of the region. Co-operative credit societies called "Anjumans" exist in all villages, though their scope and work are limited. Barring Murud and Shiradhon, the credit societies of other villages have done business amounting only to Rs. 35,000. Shiradhon has a branch of the Co-operative Credit Bank which started functioning from 1st April, 1957. Murud has done some good work during the last year. The Rural Reconstruction and Social Service Society is looking after the schools in

Murud. The Kshetra Vikas Samiti has undertaken Intensive Area Scheme of the Khadi and Village Industries Commission. Gram Vikas Mandals of Kashetra Vikas Samiti are developing at Murud, Karkata, Shirala, Watawad and Padoli villages. Shiradhon has a branch of a pinjarapole of Latur which is also conduting a farm unit.

6

Summing Up : The socio-economic condition of the Murud region presents the following important problems:

1. Soil-erosion and consequent inadequacy of cultivable land.
2. Seasonal unemployment of the farmers as well as of the artisans.
3. Low agricultural productivity due to poor soil, inadequacy of irrigational facilities, and lack of improved tools and implements.
4. Poor condition of cattle and other live-stock.
5. Unfavourable balance of trade characterised by large imports of cereals and cloth etc. and large exports of agricultural raw material.
6. Absence of proper transport facilities and communications.
7. Absence of village industries which could utilise the idle manpower and local raw materials.
8. Ill-balanced diet due to poverty and deep-rooted food habits of the people.
9. Utter inadequacy of medical aid.
10. Inadequacy of housing due to crumbling of several structures caused by the recent unusually large rainfall.
11. Illiteracy and lack of cultural activities.

It is proposed to solve these problems by planning a programme of development in keeping with the human and material resources of the region.

CHAPTER II

THE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME
AGRICULTURE

1

Contour Bunding: As soil-erosion is the primary cause of the poor agricultural condition of the region, much attention must be bestowed on promoting soil conservation. Contour bunding has already been started as an effective measure against soil erosion and as much as 8,000 acres of land has been bunded so far, the Government having spent Rs. 3,00,000 on this work. Bunded lands have shown increased production both in crops and grass. Consequently the farmers are eager to have their land bunded. Of course, due to integration of the district with Bombay State, there may be some change in the tempo of the bunding work. However, work may not be much too slow in view of the urgency of the problem. It is proposed to have in all 20,000 acres of eroded land bunded by 1961. There will thus be an increase of 6,000 acres of cultivable land and it will be no longer necessary to leave land fallow. It is expected that grazing and barren land will produce twice the amount of grass after bunding. Water percolation will naturally increase after bunding and may supply more water to the wells so that rabi crops can give better yields. Incidentally, bunding will provide considerable employment to agricultural labour for some years. It is hoped that the contour bunding will revolutionise agriculture in the area.

2

Crop Pattern under the Plan : There will be a considerable change in the crop pattern when soil-eroded lands are

reclaimed. More acreage will be brought under the plough. Hardly any decrease in acreage under the existing crops becomes necessary. Land under jawar on the other hand will increase by 3,000 acres in the next three years. The acreage under tur, paddy, kardi, karala will also considerably increase, the total increase in land under cultivation being 4,840 acres in the next three years. Increased yields in cotton and wheat are also expected during the period without any initial increase in the acreage, the increase in cotton being due to the use of better seed and that of wheat to better irrigational facilities. Table 11 shows expected acreage and increase in production on the basis of normal yields valued at the current prices.

Table 11

Crop Pattern Under The Plan

No.	Crops	Acreage	Production in Mds.	Increase in acreage	Increase in Prod. Mds.	Value of increased produce Rs.
1.	Jawar	16800	117480	3990	15000	210000
2.	Cotton	5010	22040	—	2000	60000
3.	Tur	4290	12870	1000	3000	37000
4.	Groundnut	4320	21600	—	—	
5.	Gram	2930	5860	—	—	
6.	Muag-malki	1950	1960	—	—	
7.	Wheat	6170	24680	300	1200	18000
8.	Paddy	1000	4000	240	960	12800
9.	Ambadi	639	957	—	—	
10.	Corriander	640	960	—	—	
11.	Karadi	610	1480	100	200	3366
12.	Sugarcane	710	21000 (Gur Production)	303	8790	96690

13.	Chillies	357	2485	—	102	2550
14.	Karala	910	1500	500	870	15370
15.	Sesamum-castor	555	745	125	102	
16.	Miscellaneous	4522	4522	—	—	
	Total	51,413		6,558		4,55,476

3

Irrigation : In 1956-57 Government sanctioned 40 oil engines for this area. Efforts will be made to repair the wells and keep them in good condition. This improvement in water supply is expected to increase the acreage under irrigation as well as the yield of rabi crops both for grains and cattle fodder.

4

Seed Multiplication : As the value of improved seed is well-known to local peasantry, efforts will be made to supply better seed by seed multiplication. The model farm under the Multipurpose School at Murud has taken up a part of this responsibility and is serving the farmers well. Improved methods of sowing, planting and the use of insecticides are being demonstrated on this model farm. Japanese method of rice cultivation was also demonstrated last year. The nursery, which is maintained by the farm, will be developed with a view to supplying saplings to the villagers. Seed multiplication work will also be entrusted to experienced farmers in the area. Seeds of food-grains and vegetables will be supplied to the farmers from the model farm and wherever possible at the Multipurpose Society Shops. Shops at Murud and Karkata have done some work in supplying

better seed. It is expected that before May, 1957, Multipurpose Society units will function at Shirala, Watawad and Padoli for seed distribution.

Compost pi of standard measurements, numbering 75, will be prepared and the Multi-purpose Society units will attend to composting. These units will also look after the stocking of agricultural implements for supply to farmers, sale of insecticides and manures and sale of concentrates for animals.

5

Animal Husbandry: During the next three years efforts will be made to supply stud-bulls to the villages of the area. The State Cattle Breeding Department has been approached in the matter. It is also proposed to run a cattle-breeding centre at Shiradhon with the co-operation of the Pinjarapole of Latur. people of the village of Shiradhon have consented to co-operate in the matter of cattle-breeding. The services of the Murud Veterinary dispensary will be very helpful in cattle improvement programme.

Poultry: Besides the two small poultry units at Murud and Karkata, two units will be developed at Shirala and Watawad. Pedigree cocks will be supplied to the villagers from these centres.

6

Food: The present consumption pattern and that envisaged under the Plan are presented in Table 12. The figures presented show that there is over-cosumption of cereals in the area from the point of view of balanced diet. The people have to be taught to supplement their diet of cereals with pulses, vegetables, etc. Production of gur is more than the requirement, but this does not indicate self-sufficiency. The middle class people usually sell gur

and buy sugar, specially for tea. The poor families, of course, use gur. Vegetables and milk and milk-products have to be increased under the Plan, but the production of the various commodities will not equal the standard requirements even over the Plan period. Targets of self-sufficiency will be reached only in certain items of food. while production of milk, vegetables etc. under the Plan will rise, but will still be far below the standard required. The targets in all items can be reached only slowly as a result of a general rise in the standard of living and education in food habits.

TABLE 12

CONSUMPTION PATTERN

Name	Present consumption (Mds.)	Present Production (Mds.)	Required consumption (Mds.)	Prod. under Plan (Mds.)	Percentage of reqd. Prod.
Cereals	2,05,000	1,29,000	1,82,000	1,46,1[illegible]0	80.30
Puloes	11,094	17,690	33,281	20,690	62.10
Oil	4,500	23,825	17,218	24,997/Seeds	
Sugar &		(Oil seeds)	(Oils)	6,500/Oil	37.75
Gur	8,500	12,210	15,250	21,070	130.60
Vegetables	2,044	2,044	91,000	10,220	11.11
Milk	6,750	6,750	91,000	7,425	0.16

7

Village Industries: The chief raw-materials available in the region are cotton (20,040 Mds.), Groundnut (21,600 Mds.) and other oil-seeds (4.610 Mds.). Efforts will be made to develop the village industries which will make use of these raw materials. The most important of such industries will be Khadi, oil-pressing, flaying, gur and Khandsari and brick-making.

Khadi: A sound basis has already been established for the Khadi Industry at Murud by the Khadi Commission and the Avasa Centre by the Hyderabad Khadi Samiti. Six hundred Kisan Charkhas were introduced during the last two years and 20 weavers have been rehabilitated. A full-fledged Saranjam Karyalaya is working at Murud which has recently undertaken the production of Ambar Charkhas. Response of the villagers in hand-spinning is encouraging. Khadi has a good future in the region as a source of subsidiary employment to the people. Though the present production of khadi is about 8,000 yards, it is expected that the region will reach a target of 2,00,000 yards of khadi within the next two years. To ensure achievement of this target, various production processes of khadi will be divided as follows:

(a)Cotton, Charkhas and other equipment will be supplied form Murud Centre and spinning will be done in home units in all the villages on Ambar and Kisan Charkhas.

(b) Ginning of cotton, weaving, bleaching, dyeing and printing of cloth will be done at regional level at Murud.

Considering that the people of Marathwada require at present 18 yards of cloth per capita per annum and that the total requirements of the entire population of nearly 20,000 will be about 3,60,000 yards, production of 2,00,000 yards of khadi will amount to 55.5 per cent of the normal requirements.

The employment possibilities under the Khadi Scheme are very high; the production of 2,00,000 yards will provide employment to 1,000 Kisan Charkha spinners, 1,000 Ambar Charkha spinners, and 200 weavers, besides 90 persons engaged in bleaching, dyeing and printing, 60 persons employed as instructors, supervisors and others, providing them in all work covering the present 34,547 men hours of unemployment indicated in the survey.

The estimated production under the Plan is given in Table 13. The main difficulty regarding the implementation of the programme is establishing weavers in the industry. From the experience of last year, it appears that weavers will have to be trained in the region itself in order to cope with the increasing supply of yarn. As Karkata and Gumphawadi produce superior cotton, efforts will be made to spin fine yarn also from this cotton in the area.

TABLE 13

Khadi Work Under The Plan

Items	1956-57	1957-58
Kisan Charkhas working	600	1,000
Kisan Charkhas yarn produced	5,000 lbs.	16,000 lbs.
Ambar Charkhas working	100	1,000
Ambar yarn produced	1,000 lbs.	50,000 lbs.
Khadi woven	8,000 yds.	2,00,000 yds.
Weavers' establishment	20	200
Bleaching of Khadi	8,000 yds.	2,00,000 yds.
Dyeing		1,00,000 yds.

Oil-Pressing : At present there are two ghanis in the area, one of which is in Karkata village. The Murud Kshetra Vikas Samiti has decided to set up ghanis during the next year at Murud, Karkata, Shirala, Shiradhon, Watawad and Padoli. The Industry under the Plan is expected to provide full-time employment to 15 men and 6 women.

Gur and Khandsari: A gur and khandsari unit will be started at Padoli after increasing the Area under irrigation at the village by supplying more oil engines and repairing the wells. A 10 to 12 H. P. engine will be installed at the centre and gur-making will be started on a

large-scale. It is expected that due to ths absence of a market for orchard produce, farmers will prefer growing sugar-cane as gur can be marketed easily. By installing 10 tc 12 H. P. units instead of 5 H. P. ones used now, loss of juice can be reduced up to 10 per cent. A unit of 10 H. P. engine requires nearly double the number of persons required for 5 H.P. unit. The value of employment will also increase many times as the unit saves the cultivator Re. 1 per maund and induces him to divert more land to cane-growing. The bigger unit also saves considerable investment required for furnaces, sheds, etc. of the farmers who have been hitherto preparing gur in small individual units. It is expected that gur-making by improved methods and equipment will result in a saving of Re. 1 per maund, for the cost of production will be brought down from Rs. 3 to Rs. 2 as shown in Table 14.

TABLE 14

Cost Of Gur-Production (for one work day)

Item	5 H. P. unit	10 H. P. unit	Proposed Unit under plan.	Remarks
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Cutting Sugar-cane	3-0-0	6- 0-0	6- 0-0	
Carting sugar-cane	18-0-0	36- 0-0	36- 0-0	
Preparing sugarcane for Gur Production	5-4-0	10- 8-0	10- 8-0	
Crushing Sugarcane	3-0-0	3-12-0	3-12-0	
Preparing Gur	5-4-0	6 12-0	6-12-0	
Oil-Grease Diesel	4-0-0	6- 0-0	6- 0-0	

Engine and Crusher charges	9-0-0	13- 0-0	8- 0-0	In the proposed unit Rs. 8 is not charged on hire rate but actual depreciation and interest on the capital
Misc. charges	4-0-0	4- 0-0	4- 0-0	
Management charges	7-8-0	10-0-0	5- 0-0	In the proposed Rs. 5 is supervision and management charge
Total cost and Gur Produced	59-0-0 for 22 mds 20 secrs.	96- 0-0 for 50 mds.	86- 0-0 for 50 mds.	
Cost per maund	2-10-0	1-14-9	1-11-6	

This will not make much change in the employment pattern. As the irrigation facilities increase and sugarcane area also increases, there will be considerable increase in seasonal employment in the industry.

Flaying Centre : During the current year, flaying centres will be started at Shirala and Murud. In the first year the industry may provide employment only to two persons; but

considering the number of cattle in the region, it may be expected that at least 10 families will find employment in the industry within three years.

Brick-Making: In view of the growing need to build better houses in the region in the place of the existing crumbling kutcha houses, it is expected that bricks will have a large demand in the region. Brickmaking is already a flourishing industry and Kshetra Vikas Samiti has, therefore, planned to produce 6,00,000 bricks during 1957-58 providing employment for 9 months to 25 families.

8

Marketing : Marketing has to be orgnised in a manner which will enable the farmers to hold their stocks until they get a favourable price. This can be done only when credit is available to them against their harvests to the extent necessary to meet their house-hold needs and to repay loans obtained for agricultural operations from co-operative societies or Government. Co-operative marketing only can solve this problem satisfactorily.

Exports and Imports: Increase in agricultural and other production envisaged under the plan will turn the export-import trade in favour of the region. Under the plan there will be a great increase in the sugarcane production. Even, if there is a growing tendency to use sugar, villagers normally use gur. Thus regional self-sufficieney in gur is likely to be achieved; but the import of sugar may not be affected. Gur production will raise the income of the region as a whole, as gur will be exported. In respect of cloth, local khadi production will reduce cloth imports by 1961 by about Rs. 67,000 as there may be a saleable surplus of cloth upto about 50 per cent of the total production. The import of machinery on the other hand will increase as a result of efforts

to bring more land under irrigation. At present, imports of cereals are high, but when people are persuaded to change their food habits and adopt balanced diet, there will be a change in the pattern of trade in cereals. For, as the production of cereals gradually increases to about 80.3 per cent of the regions's requirements, there will be corresponding fall in the import of cereals.

At present there is a group Multipurpose Society at Murud working in co-operation with the local Kshetra Vikas Samiti. Karkata, Shirala and Watawad have collected share-capital and become branch members of this group Multipurpose Society. Some credit has been made available to these branch societies of Shirala and Karkata and Multi-purpose shops are already working there. A programme for starting such shops at Watawad, Padoli and Shiradhon and in a few other villages has been prepared.

Arrangements for credit supply to farmers against goods kept in the village branches of the Multipurpose Society are the key-note of a ware-housing scheme that will be worked in this region. This work will proceed smoothly as more and more credit is made available to each ware-house. Judging from the experience of Karkata and Murud shops, it can be said that suitable assistance to all the marketing agencies in the region can be co-operatively organised in the next 3 to 4 years. Co-operative credit societies, now working in the Area, are able to give credit only upto Rs. 50,000. It is proposed to increase this upto Rs. 3 lakhs in the next two years in order to make planned development of agriculture and marketing possible.

Transport and Communications: Marketing has suffered much in the region due to absence of feeder roads. Karkata has already constructed such a road for its own use. Efforts are being made in other villages in the same direction under the

Road Development Scheme of the Bombay State. The transport problem can partly be solved by the group Multipurpose Society which can afford to maintain 2 or 3 trucks for the services of the branches, on a hire basis. These trucks can transport coal, ash, timber, sand etc. for the Kshetra Vikas Samiti, in addition to other public carrying.

9

Housing: On account of the damage caused to the houses in the region by the recent increase in the volume of rainfall, a big programme of housing has become necessary. A bold beginning, therefore, has to be made to tackle the problem. It has been decided to organise a House Construction Society in 1957–58 to undertake constrution activity throughout the region. The Society will prepare layout plans and house-designs and arrange for supply of building materials as well as finance from within and outside the area. It will also supervise construction work and try to bring down building costs by effecting such economies as may be possible. Intending house-builders who are now obliged to wait too long for and spend too much on building materials, will now find the Society useful in providing materials, technical advice and supervision. The Kshetra Vikas Samiti itself can arrange for production of bricks, doors and windows and such other materials. This may help bring down building costs. The Society's designs and village plans will be examined by the Gram Panchayats and Gram Vikas Mandals from the point of view of ventilation and sanitary arrangements, before they are approved.

In the first year it is proposed that housing of backward class people should be taken up with the available finance under the Backward Class Housing Scheme of the Government of India. The Housing Society will contact intending house-builders and

offer them its services at reasonable costs and efforts will also be made to obtain financial assistance under the recent Government Housing Scheme for low income groups. The Society will also undertake the construction of school-buildings, public-buildings, village wells, etc.

Health and Sanitation : Villagers of the region have considered the problem of public health ahd have promised their co-operation to Kshetra Vikas Samiti in implementing a programme of medical aid and hospitalisation. The Kshetra Vikas Samili, therefore, proposes to have a hospital with 6 beds at Murud with a qualified doctor and a nurse. For the upkeep of the institution each family would subscribe under a health seheme an annual fee of Rs. 12 either in cash or in kind, including yarn. Medical advice and normal medicines will be given free to patients of the subscribing families. Costly medicines will, however, have to be paid for by the patients themselves and the cost of injectules has also to be borne by them. The doctor will visit villages in emergency and will be at headquarters on fixed days in a week. The Kshetra Vikas Samiti has received an assurance from senior medical experts at Latur to visist Murud once a week to attend to serious cases and guide the doctors in charge.

Leprosy is one of the chief problems of public health in the area. The Gandhi Smarak Nidhi and Government have been doing some work for lepers, but arrangements for segregation of lepers in separate colonies are essential. It is proposed to carry on this work in close co-operation with the Nidhi and the Government. There is also a suggestion for night-segregation of lepers in colonies. Considering the magnitude of problem, the Kshetra Vikasa Samiti has decided to take suitable steps with the co-operation of all the authorities concerned in the matter.

10

Education: As education of girls presents a problem, it is proposed to open tuition classes in villages for girls. These classes will be of one or two hours' duration, the time being arranged to suit the convenience of girls of school-going age who are at present held up at home or on the farm to help their families.

Though school buildings in the area are spacious, only 43 per cent of the school-going age children are attending schools. This is partly due to inadequate teaching staff sanctioned by the Government. An effort will be made to press the authorities to increase the staff. People will have to be convinced about the need to educate children; the facilities for education will be of little use if talented children are unable to avail themselves of the opportunities due to poverty. The villagers of Karkata, Murud, Shirala, Watawad and Shiradhon have agreed to help poor children by raising funds or out of the produce of the community land.

Under the development programme of the Khadi and Village Industries Commission for 1957-58, provision has been made for more educational institutions at Murud. A Khadi Vidyalaya for 40 trainees has been sanctioned and a course of training for Mistries for Ambar Charkha manufacture has commenced at Murud. To enable the development of weaving industry in the region itself, it has been decided to start a weaving course for local weavers under the aegis of Kshetra Vikas Samiti.

The agricultural section of the Multipupose School will undertake to provide agricultural education. A museum is being set up at Murud to display agricultural implements, varieties of quality seed, insecticides and pictorial exhibits like

charts and posters so that villagers may be able to benefit by the information supplied by the museum.

11

Institutions : Development programmes under any area must have sanction of public opinion and in rural areas public has to be slowly built up. Institutional frame-work is an essential of development programmes. People should be induced to build up certain institutions and manage them properly as a part of their implementation of the development programmes of the area. Growth or failure of the institutions in an area is a sure indication of the favourable attitude of the people or their apathy In Murud regional plan, an effort will be made in the primary stages to set up necessary institutions and make them work on proper lines. As these institutions are essentially democratic, their smooth and successful working depends on the support given by the people.

In Murud Area some institutional frame-work is noticeable in the existence of Technical High School, co-operative societies, workshop and Kshetra Vikas Samiti. As the plan presented here necessitates the organisation of more institutions, it is proposed to organise the following institutions, besides those already in existence :

1) Group Multi-purpose Society at Murud to look after the agricultural credit, general agricultural development and marketing.

2) Khadi Vidyalaya and Agricultural School.

3) Hospital and dispensary with a health scheme.

4) A Co-operative Housing Society.

5) Banks at Murud and Shiradhon.

6) Balwadi at Murud.

7) Gram Vikas Mandals in every village.

8) Village workshop for servicing and repairs of machinery and tools.

9) Cattle Breeding Centre at Shiradhon.

As the problems of women have been neglected too long and as the proper atmosphere has to be created before any institution is organised for women's activities, no institutions for women are immediately contemplated. An effort will be made, however, to hold women's camps periodically at various centres so that these camps may eventually develop into women's institutions.

11

Impact Of The Development Programme: The enthusiastic implementation of the village plan of Karakata and the general support of the other villages justified the hope that the region will receive similar support and co-operation of the people of the area. The institutional base is also ready to a large extent for undertaking the development programme of these dimensions. With popular support and co-operation, the Murud region may be able to register all-round development as summed up here:

a) Bunding of 20,000 acres of soil-eroded land.

b) Bringing over 6,000 acres of additional land into cultivation and obtaining by crop planning, an additional agricultural produce valued at about Rs. 4.5 lakhs

c) Improvement of irrigation and water supply by repairs to and better maintenance of wells.

d) Seed multiplication and distribution to farmers, besides production of better manure by preparing 75 compost pits of standard dimensions.

e) Livestock improvement by starting cattle-breeding centre and poultry units.

f) Improvement of diet of the people by production and supply of protective foods, like fruits and vegetables.

g) Production of 2,00,000 yards of Khadi by providing adequate spinning and weaving equipment so as to meet 55.5 per cent of the cloth requirements of the area.

h) Development of other important industries by setting up 15 Oil Ghanis for oil-pressing, starting two Centres for flaying, introduction of necessary equipment for gur manufacture so as to reduce the cost of production from Rs. 3 to Rs. 2 per maund of gur and the producton of 6,00,000 bricks by pottery industry.

i) Introduction of elaborate housing programme.

j) Cultural development programme for providing education for boys and girls and a health scheme for all the villagers.

k) Setting up several institutions to achieve the targets envisaged above.

The psychological effects of this programme on the villagers will be tremendous. Their thinking together for group action, the equalisation of opportunities, with its emphasis on Antyodaya, popular co-operation at every stage of planning and implementation of the programme, the democratic management of the various institutions created by themselves, the good health and pleasure which the people enjoy from the public health and cultural programmes will help in evolving a new social order where the village is one family and where individuals develop their personality without disowning the community. This is a programme which provides training to the people for Gram Raj.

CHAPTER III

VILLAGE RE-MODELLING

(*By Ramjash*)

Effect On Culture : If attainment of minimum living standards in villages is the aim, the building programme cannot be conceived in terms of rural housing alone, but must be considered in terms of village re-modelling. As the situation in the rural areas has developed over generations, the question is no longer of mere extension of living space, but of making the village, worth living. It is thus a question of providing in the villages all the amenit required for a decent living. When the villages were sparsely populated in the early stages of their formation, such amenities were available in a natural way. Each house had enough space around it and the village site as a whole was extensive. That site remaining the same, the growth of population has created problems of congestion. The villages have become crowded and the grazing and other free land around them have been converted into agricultural land. All this has reduced living space for men and their cattle and has created new problems of sanitation and drainage.

In most villages, all the space within the village site has been used for building purposes, thus blocking the natural drainage. The original facilities of having separate cattle sheds are no longer available. The surroundings of villages are used as latrines. Evidently, to solve all these problems, the village

site has to grow with the growth in population. This will involve extension of the present village sites as also preparing more or less new layouts or, in other words, remodelling entire villages. Such lay-outs must meet the present requirements of the village population as also provide for its growth.

While congestion is the picture in what are called the advanced villages, the system of farm houses still prevalent among backward communities, presents another picture. Both situations retard the growth of culture, the former because it lacks enough living space and other amenities and the latter because it affords less of community life. In either case, therefore, re-modelling becomes essential.

2

Importance of Kitchen Gardens : The programme of village re-modelling should be undertaken not merely to solve the accumulated problems of living space, sanitation and drainage, but also to attempt the provision of minimum living standards. That is to say, re-modelling should be conceived in terms of Antyodaya. It must provide enough living space and nutrition to the landless and poorer sections of the village community. To achieve this, it will be necessary to provide each house with a plot of land sufficient for the family requirements of vegetables and fruits and for maintaining a cow for milk and ghee. The plot must also accommodate compost pits and latrine. This ensures balanced diet and maintains good sanitary standards. If the poorer sections are provided with such plots for use as kitchen gardens, it follows that the rest of the village houses should have similar kitchen gardens. The provision of kitchen gardens attached to every house is thus

a key solution to the problems of nutrition anl sanitation. It is difficult to conceive of an alteraative arrangement to solve the problem of village sanitation on a pe-manent basis.

Various other methods have been tried with no purpose. Community latrines have not worked well. Other types of latrines, involving handling of excreta, have no appeal to the village communities. In the past, the service of professional scavengers has been rare in the villages and in future services can hardly be conceived of. If our villages have to improve their hygienic conditions, large-sized kitchen gardens seem to provide the only solution. This, of course, assumes conditions of good water supply. Where water is scarce, alternative arrangements will have to be thought of. In such cases, common bathrooms near wells may have to be constructed; common plots of ground to accommodate family latrines may have to be provided for at convenient places around the village and separate cattle sheds may have to be constructed outsidc the villages. This is the direction in which Karkata village in the Murud area is trying to solve its sanitation problems.

It is a matter of general experience that even the well-to-do families in the villages are not in the habit of purchasing vegetables, and particularly fruits, to have balanced diet. Production of sufficient quantities of fruits and vegetables by every family is the only solution to raise the nutritional standards of every family. Such production throughout the year is possible only through kitchen gardens. Kitchen gardens also provide an additional advantage. They enable family members, particularly children, to be in contact with land and nature and to gain knowledge in regard to seasons of the year, soil chemistry and plant growth. Land brought under kitchen gardens adds to the production, because of the possibility of

intensive cultivation and greater attention. Kitchen gardens also raise the manurial resources of the village as all the village refuse and human and animal urine become available for composting.

3

Housing Co-operative Society: The most important requirement of village re-modelling is the creation of a proper organisation which can undertake this programme. Among other reasons, lack of organisation is the greatest single factor which comes in the way of house-building in rural areas. Today, any person wanting to build a house in the village, has to possess himself the resources and talent required for all the departments of house building. He has to be the financier, the merchant and the manager all combined into one. This discourages him from undertaking to build a house. In some cases, if finances are available, supply of standard building materials may present a problem. In other cases, availability of building artisans may be difficult. And in all cases, the services of architects are practically non-existent. It is thus impossible to undertake any building programme in the villages in the absence of a proper organisation which can look after all these branches of building activities satisfactorily. In cities, there are organisations of contractors, which command the services of trained artisans, ready-made appliances and equipment and even standard building materials. The facilities of such kinds that are readily available are mainly responsible for the very large growth of cities. Rural areas should have similar organisations, if house building and village remodelling programmes have to be undertaken on any considerable scale. Such organisations can be the Rural Housing Co-operative Societies formed for groups of villages. In this way, every intensive area should have one such housing co-operative society. This becomes all the more

necessary in view of the fact that there is scarcity of building materials in the villages. There is scarcity of bricks and tiles. Where they are available, they are of an inferior type. There is scarcity of timber and the supply of controlled articles like cement and iron, seriously hampers the construction of *pucca* house. A housing society can make an organised effort to solve all these difficulties. It can also command the service of trained artisans or can train up new artisans where necessary. Above all it can bring down the building costs by efficient supervision and supply of cheap materials. It can engage qualified architects and overseers for the prepration of lay-outs and designs and for working out the costs. It is only through such a systematic approach that provision can be made for public buildings as well as for the extension of the village site for further growth. And again, it is only through such systematic attempt that public opinion can be created in the villages in favour of consolidation of land required for remodelling, including allotment of land for kitchen gardens to the landless. If such housing societies can mobilise the spare manpower through a system of labour bank, they will succeed in accelerating the building programme in the villages.

CHAPTER IV

WOMEN AND VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

(Kusum Patwardhan)

It is a certain phenomenon that while village industries have much to do with women, they are hardly on the move so far as organised efforts for developing village industries are concerned. The development of village industries has mainly been the movement by men, and women, as it were, have been the passive partners. This is the fundamental reason why the village industries movement has not taken root. If this movement has to gather vitality, women have to play a more active part in it. It is only when women begin to shape the movement that the real problems of village industries will come to the forefront. These problems are not merely economic, but also social and cultural. Village industries suffer because the latter two aspects have not been properly appreciated.

Due to the impact of the Western civilisation and the centralisation of the economy in the country, the social structure in the village has undergone rapid changes. One main change is the breakdown of the joint family system. This has created new problems for village industries. Under the joint family system, it was possible for women to take to village industries consistent with their other duties of looking after the house and attending to

childern as there was a perfectly correlated division of labour among the women members of family. This division of labour provided a rational time-table of work which made for the development of personality through cultural leisure. In this system again, traditional knowledge in regard to the bringing up of children, home medicines, social customs, religious stories and industrial processes, was passed on from the aged to the young womenfolk. With the breakdown of the joint family system, there is a voilent break in all these arrangements. Neither the division of labour nor the continuity of traditional knowledge are ensured. In single family, one woman is left to struggle alone to cope up with all sorts of household duties and, in many cases, help the men folk also in their work. She has hardly any time left for cultural activities. Her children are neglected and her life is full of drudgery from early morning till late in the night.

Woman's lot in villages is the worst in all respects. In cities, there are some alternative arrangements for the breakdown of mutual help in joint families. There are charitable institutions and maternity homes in cities. The industrial age has brought a degree of prosperity in towns and cities. In villages the change is for the worse. Medicine is out of reach, maternity homes and child welfare centrs are hardly heard of. There is no facility for ante-natal care or birth control. The old safeguards provided by custom against indulgence and the old system of mutual help have crumbled down and the new civilisation has nothing positive

to offer. The poverty of the villages has become proverbial and is the main reason for the existing state of things. It saps the vitality of the people and breeds ignorance. Added to all these is the prevalence of caste feelings that renders very difficult any programme involving common endeavour for the uplift of the village.

These are the circumstances under which a woman is expected to take to village industries. This is the case of the majority of women in the villages, except a few belonging to higher castes who keep their women not only under *pardah*, but in complete seclusion, in separate *zanana* buildings. While these secluded women will certainly take to village industries to get relief from their monotonous life, the problems will have to be differently tackled for the majority of women in the village, who are already over-burdened with work. For them village industries are possible only if they carry out their daily activities in such a way that they get an opportunity to learn while being occupied and are also provided with enough leisure. A proper occupational time-table for women will necessarily call for structural changes in society.

The structural changes in society necessitate a reorientation in the method of implementing the programme of village industries. This new method will have to conceive a higher objective for the programme of village industries than that of mere subsidiary income. It has fundamentally to aim at building up the personality of the woman. This envisages a rational time-table

of work for her. It is from this consideration that alternative arrangements for old division of labour will have to be devised. What was possible in the joint family will have now to be provided by creating newly a bigger family in the village. In other words, the village community will have to create a village service centre which will take over some of the burdens from individual families. For instance, setting up of a grinding centre, supply of good drinking water, regular sweeping of roads and other such functions undertaken by the village community will free woman from much drudgery work and save to a great extent her time and energy for better and more productive purposes. It is only under such an arrangement that women will be able to take to village industries.

If it is remembered that "the hand that rocks the cradle rules the world", the importance of developing the personality of woman will be realised. Her everyday life must be so arranged that, through her activities, she gets opportunities of developing her self. In the first place, before she is married, she must be trained for life's duties and functions. She must study home science, nutrition, care of the child, child psychology, handicrafts and home management. She must also take active interest in the life of the village community, so that she gets the larger perspective of all these problems and understands properly the significance of collective efforts to secure common welfare. To this end, there must be a women's club organised in every village

to provide an opportunity for regular discussion of the community and also for training in village industries. The free mixing in clubs and work centres will also help to overcome caste prejudices and prepare the ground for better social relationship.

On women depends the welfare of the future generations. It is of the utmost importance, therefore, that in our Areas, programmes for the devolopment of women should be chalked out. Women must be provided with necessary amenities and opportunities for learning while doing. It is from this point of view that village industries should be organised for women in the villages.

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